DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 201 046 EA 013 49?

AUTHOR Baumgart, Neil; And Others
TITLE Survey of Public Opinions About Schools in New South Wales.
INSTITUTION Australian Coll. of Education, North Ryde.
SPONS AGENCY Macquarie Univ., North Ryde (Australia).
PUB DATE 79
NOTE 112p.

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Demography; *Educational Assessment; *Educational Policy; Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; Information Dissemination; Majority Attitudes; Parent Attitudes; *Private Schools; *Public Opinion; *Public Schools; Public Support; Surveys
IDENTIFIERS Australia (New South Wales)

ABSTRACT

A questionnaire survey in New South Wales (Australia) provided the basis for this discussion of the implications of public opinion for future educational policy. The report supports the use of systematic surveys to contribute information to the blend of knowledge, experience, and awareness of future trends policy makers rely on to reach decisions. The data for the survey were drawn from 1341 interviews conducted in Sydney and six country towns. Much of the data is descriptively presented where a high degree of consensus is evident. Items eliciting a wide range of responses were analyzed according to subgroups (urban or rural, male or female, married or single) and selected demographic characteristics. Questions on the questionnaire were related to the respondents' knowledge about government, private, and independent schools, school ratings, broad opinions about schools, and school goals. Overall, the schools were found to be fairly well regarded. Recommendations include improving communication between policy makers and the public, further research on school climate, investigation of the existing and desired relationships between education and work, and the development of adequate means to assess basic student competencies. (Author/WD)

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Survey of Public Opinions About Schools in New South Wales

A study undertaken during 1979 on behalf of the New South Wales Chapter of the Australian College of Education

Funded principally by

The Australian College of Education with supplementary funding from an internal research grant from Macquarie University

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Acknowledgments

I gratefully acknowledge the assistance of many people in the planning, conduct and reporting of this study. It was through the initiative of the executive of the New South Wales Chapter of the College and its then President, Rob Maclay, that the study was initiated in the first place. I gratefully acknowledge the financial support received through the national executive of the College and through Macquarie University's internal research fund. Peter Botsman and Mary Grassie discussed the experiences of the previous Queensland study with me and kindly provided access to their materials and original data. Similarly, Graham Dunne had much helpful advice based on the South Australian experience and John Stevens generously came to Sydney to assist in our briefing session.

I would also like to acknowledge the contribution of Rod Watson, Lyn Meek, Ruth Brearley and Debbie Norris in the production of a training tape for interviewers.

Thanks go to staff of the Australian Bureau of Statistics who drew the sample of census districts for us and who provided helpful guidance on both practical and technical issues related to the survey.

A most gratifying aspect of the study was the ready cooperation and considerable effort received from the staff and students in 12 tertiary institutions throughout New South Wales. The names of staff who acted as coordinators and students who acted as interviewers are listed in an appendix to this report. A special thank you goes to these people.

A very sincere thank you to those members of the public who kindly acceded to our request for an interview, often at some inconvenience to themselves. Thanks also to those sections of the media who supported the study by warning the public of our intentions to interview.

Ralph Cullen carried much of the administrative and organisational burden of the survey. I want to thank him in particular for his initiative and to compliment him on his competence. A special thank you to Lucia Kelly who graciously slotted the additional typing into her already heavy schedule.

Finally, a sincere thank you to other members of the research panel for their assistance and continued interest throughout the project. I am most grateful to Reg Philps who kindly presented our interim report to the Perth Conference of the College in August, 1979.

Neil Baumgart

Neil Baumgart

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Case for Surveys of Public Opinion

Traditionally, major policy decisions in education - those concerned with educational provision, priorities, curriculum, staffing, finance - have been taken by central administrators within constraints imposed by government. In earlier times there was little public debate on educational issues and presumably an acceptance of the judgment of "experts". But in recent years there has been a much greater demand for participation not only by teachers but also by parents and school communities. Similarly, the public at large has shown an increasing interest in entering the debate on the goals and outcomes of education.

In her review of the research on community expectations of education, Mason (1979) identified seven major changes occurring in Australia since the Second World War contributing to a heightened awareness of educational issues. These were:

- the dramatic growth in the proportion of the population involved with education as parents, teachers and students, and the parallel increase in public expenditure on education;
- the greater educational sophistication of the Australian community, including that of the parents of students currently at school;
- changes in our population and, in particular, in the student population due to the influx of migrants into Australia;
- changes in the late-secondary school population as increasing numbers of students, many of them not bound for tertiary training, stay on to complete secondary education;
- the adoption of a variety of new approaches to teaching in schools, which have replaced long-established practices (e.g. new maths, open-plan classrooms);
- more recently, well-publicised suggestions that educational standards in Australia are declining; and
- decreased employment and post-secondary educational opportunities, which have highlighted the apparent unpreparedness of many school-leavers to contribute to the workforce.

(Mason, 1979 : 1)

Although most major policy decision-making in Australia remains centralized, educational policy-makers have shown an increasing willingness to heed public opinion, and indeed, to encourage public participation and debate. Recent activity on school-community based decision-making (Brady and Pope, 1979) is some evidence for this. Similarly, the series of public seminars on education in New South Wales held recently in Sydney and country areas is further evidence of a willingness to foster public debate on educational issues. Committees of enquiry have become a standard prelude to major policy decisions and such committees typically solicit opinions not only from professional groups and individuals but also from the public at large. However, where submissions are invited from the public (for example, via newspaper advertisement), it is likely that the response is biased in terms of those with particular or sectional interests. This points to the need for systematic surveys attempting to sample public opinion in a more representative way.

A further reason for seeking public opinion on educational issues is the increasing demand for stricter accountability from the education sector. Such a demand for accountability stems partly from the increased resources which have been applied to educational institutions and programs in the past decade. The demand comes from administrators of social welfare programs competing with education for scarce resources and from a tax-paying public increasingly knowledgeable about, and involved in, educational matters.

If the education sector is to be publicly accountable, it is necessary to know what aspirations the public holds for the education sector. If the work and the output of schools are to be judged, what criteria will be used for making the judgment? What do people believe schools ought to be about? Is there consensus on this? If not, can different views on what schools should achieve be explained by characteristics of people holding those views? Answers to questions such as these are precursors to public accountability.

Questions such as these are most adequately answered through systematic surveys of public opinion and by investigation of relationships between characteristics of respondents and opinions held. The danger in <u>not</u> surveying public opinion in a fairly careful scientific way is that articulate pressure groups may give the impression of speaking for the public at large.

In arguing this case for the need to survey public opinion about schools, it is not suggested that views held by the public should necessarily be used as a standard for judging schools or as indicating desirable future directions. Public opinion is likely to be conservative and to favour the <u>status quo</u> or even a return to previous but familiar practices; it may be readily influenced by selective or sensational reporting in the media; and on many issues opinions are likely to be sharply divided. Nevertheless, if public

perceptions of current school practices run counter to perceived ideals, then policy-makers and administrators need to take some action. It may be that some change in practice or performance is desirable. Or it may be simply that much better communication between policy-makers and the public is needed so that reasons for changes are fully understood. The greater educational sophistication of the community means that policies will be subject to scrutiny and changes will be treated with some suspicion unless they are accompanied by a satisfactory rationale. Politicians are naturally sensitive to such public scrutiny and suspicion in relation to educational policy with a consequence that desirable innovation may be suppressed. However, on the positive side, the greater educational sophistication of the community should also mean a desire by the public to understand the reasons for change, to hold realistic goals for schools and to have schools which are truly effective.

1.2 Background to the Present Survey

In her review of the research on community expectations of education, Mason (1979) identified thirteen recent studies (all but one in Australia) which used structured questionnaires or interviews to investigate public expectations of schools and opinions on the outcomes of schooling. All studies reviewed had used a standardised format for the research instrument and had used statistical summaries to describe their findings. Working from the original data, Mason was able to identify 417 separate items addressing the aims and/or outcomes of education. By grouping items which were conceptually alike, Mason was able to reduce this list to 109 composite items and to rescore responses to these in terms of their relative importance in the various studies.

Of the Australian studies reviewed by Mason, five drew the majority of their items from a study in the United Kingdom by Ashton et al. (1975). Ashton and her colleagues surveyed 1500 primary school teachers from 200 schools across the United Kingdom with a list of 72 aims relevant to primary education. This list was developed following extensive discussions with primary teachers and, although not exhaustive, is most comprehensive.

Of the studies reviewed by Mason, only two attempted some representative sampling of public opinion. One of these was conducted by Botsman and Browne (1977) for the Queensland Chapter of the Australian College of Education. The survey instrument used in the study was developed by the research team in Queensland although it drew upon a schedule used for the Gallup Poll of Attitudes towards Education in the United States. It is this Queensland study which the present research has sought to replicate, albeit with some modifications.

Although six reasons were listed for the Queensland study, one might infer from the initial chapter of the report that the debate

about "standards" in schools provided a major impetus for the study. The study was supported by an Educational Research and Development Committee grant.

A similar survey of public opinions about schools was then conducted in South Australia by the South Australian Council for Educational Planning and Research with financial support from the local Chapter of the College of Education (Dunne, 1978). While the South Australian report reflects some quite different emphases, the study was designed to be sufficiently similar in instrumentation and design to the Queensland study to permit some inter-State comparisons.

With this background, the New South Wales Chapter of the College decided to undertake a similar survey in the local State during 1979. It was considered that such a survey would not only provide useful descriptive information on public opinions about schools in New South Wales but that it would also permit an extension of the inter-State comparisons. Limitations on interpretation of comparative data are obvious (for example, the times of data collection, the methods of sampling and some of the questions asked all differed). Nevertheless, it was decided that selected comparisons could prove insightful and hence, although some attempts were made to improve the instrument and aspects of the methodology, the study was made sufficiently similar to the predecessors in Queensland and South Australia to permit such comparisons.

Major financial support for the study was provided through the national executive of the College of Education and some further support was provided through Macquarie University. While the School of Education at Macquarie has been "home base" for the study, twelve tertiary institutions have cooperated in the research. Overall management has been effected through a research panel of New South Wales Chapter members.

1.3 Purpose of the Present Report

An interim report on the study (Baumgart et al., 1979) was presented to the Perth Conference of the College in August, 1979. That report provided a summary of the rationale, methodology and procedures of the study and gave some selected findings judged to be of interest to conference delegates. While the present report attempts to give an overall picture of the study and its findings, it is inevitable that we have still been selective in our reporting. In particular, we have tried to include those variables and relationships which, in our view, have implications for future educational policy. Nevertheless, it is likely that some readers will be left with questions unanswered. We have retained the data in a readily accessible form and if any individuals or groups would like to explore additional relationships among the variables, this can be readily arranged.

In preparing this report, we have been mindful of the source of our data, the public, and we have attempted to give our findings in layman language. While this report has the traditional format of academic research writing, and while many concepts and jargon terms from education are used, we trust it will communicate effectively with policy-makers, with practising teachers and with those members of the public interested in our schools and their impact on the future generation.

CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

2.1 Constraints Operating

In any social science survey, there are always a number of practical constraints operating which serve to make the design of the study less than ideal. The present survey was no exception. There were two major constraints influencing the research design and method for the New South Wales survey:

- In the first place, it was necessary to use a questionnaire and methods of sampling sufficiently similar to those used for the Queensland and South Australian studies to permit meaningful comparisons. While some improvements could be attempted, the basic format of the instrument and the procedures for the study had to be retained. Thus it was decided to give the questionnaire as an interview, as had been done in the previous studies.

- Secondly, in order to conduct interviews on a sample of reasonable size, it was necessary to use volunteer interviewers. Although a fairly large number of interviewers was required, it had to be possible to provide similar instructions and a standard training program for them. Seeking the assistance of students in tertiary institutions as interviewers was the most feasible way to achieve this.

Both the Queensland and South Australian studies had used electoral rolls to select a sample of respondents. The Queensland study selected potential respondents at random from 35 electoral rolls covering Brisbane and three other major urban areas. However, from a target pool of 2,075 persons, only 948 (45.7 per cent) usable responses were obtained. The low response rate was attributed largely to the difficulty in locating persons at addresses listed.

In South Australia, the sample was restricted to the Adelaide area but electoral rolls were again used as the basis of sampling. With a target sample of 2,400, and even with some provision for replacement, the response rate was still only 49 per cent.

Because of these difficulties experienced with electoral rolls, it was decided to use a different strategy in New South Wales. Instead of using electoral rolls from which to draw the sample, Census Districts were used. A random sample of Census Districts was first drawn, then dwellings were drawn at random from each selected District and finally a person was selected at random from those in each house. The details of the sampling and the most likely sources of bias in selecting the sample are discussed in 2.4. To have the New South Wales population correspond as much as possible with the populations defined by the electoral rolls in the other two States, only persons of 18 years of age and above were considered eligible for interview.

The sample was also restricted to Sydney and six country cities because of the availability of interviewers from local Colleges of Advanced Education. The six country cities were Armidale, Bathurst, Goulburn, Newcastle, Wagga Wagga and Wollongong. As in the previous surveys, interviewing in rural areas was clearly not practicable.

2.2 The Questionnaire

The South Australian study had used a modified version of the instrument developed in Queensland. In the present study, the instrument was further modified on three grounds:

(a) Some changes were necessary to suit the local situation. Most of these changes related to terminology but a few related to the emphasis given to issues currently in public debate in New South Wales.

(b) Some changes were made to effect improvements in wording and to reduce ambiguity of items.

(c) When the Queensland researchers kindly made available their original data, we were able to omit some items on the basis of re-analyses we did on these data (discussed below). This had the desirable effect of reducing the overall length of the questionnaire while still retaining sufficient items to measure all the major dimensions in the original study.

The final form of the instrument used in the present study (see Appendix A) required less than half-an-hour to administer and comprised four sections as follows:

Part A: Demographic data.

Part B: General Opinions about Schools.
Basis of Information.

Part C: Two Open-ended response questions.

Part D: Opinion rating scales (33 items) on what schools should be doing and on how successful they are.

There were two reasons for including the demographic data of Part A. In the first place, it allowed a check on the representativeness of the sample as compared with Census data. Secondly, it permitted attempts to explain why people held different opinions. Where consensus was evident on a question, the total response was simply described. But where people differed in their opinions, it was possible to investigate associations between selected demographic variables and the opinions in an attempt to explain why the different opinions were held.

We had planned initially to leave out the open-ended responses of Part C. However, the experience of the other States was that interviewees welcomed the opportunity to make some free responses following a fairly heavy barrage of structured questions. Similarly, the open response questions were included midway through the interview to provide some relief from the otherwise highly structured format.

Part D provided some dilemma for us. Had we developed the instrument initially, we would have preferred first to identify major categories for opinions on what schools should be doing and then to write a set of questions related to each category. However, given the existing items from the previous studies, we began by attempting to group items which seemed to measure similar concepts. Using the Queensland data, we were then able to investigate the extent to which items within each group were associated empirically.

From this work, five "scales" (or sets of items) were included. These related to the role of schools in the teaching and learning of:

Basic skills	- 3 items
Personal development	- 7 items
Social competence	- 6 items
Practical skills	- 5 items
Cultural interests	- 3 items

In addition, a further nine items were included because they were of interest as individual items.

2.3 Validity and Reliability

To assist the interpretation of research findings, it is desirable to know to what extent the research instrument reflects the intended purposes of the study and whether or not responses to different questions form consistent patterns. Evidence for these two features is usually given as validity and reliability (or, more precisely, internal consistency) respectively. The previous section provided a rationale for the inclusion of particular questions in the four sections. The items in Part D seeking opinions on what schools should be doing did not cover all possible goals for schools and in this respect there was some lack of content validity. However, as indicated in 2.2, the items were judged to cover the major goals identified in the two previous studies.

A further question on the validity of the responses concerns the extent to which the answers given by people interviewed really reflect the opinions they hold. Clearly there were many possible sources of bias or error here. It may be that some questions were misunderstood; or it may be that some people responded in a way they thought the interviewer would expect; or some people may have given any response rather than admit ignorance, and so on. Of course, it is very difficult to obtain direct evidence on problems such as these

in surveys of this kind. However, it is clear that adequate training of the interviewers is vital and is probably the most important single factor in minimizing these threats to validity. The training of interviewers and the procedures for the conduct of interviews will be discussed in 2.5.

A further question of validity is the extent to which the opinions of people actually interviewed reflect the opinions of the public at large. In other words, how good was the sampling? Even if care is taken in drawing a fairly representative sample, a particular problem is that people who are not at home when an interviewer calls, or people who refuse an interview, may hold different views from those who respond. In this study, we did find some predictable bias (for example, a higher proportion of females than males) in the sample of respondents. While we cannot know how non-respondents would have replied, it was possible to look for differences in opinions of different sub-groups (for example, males and females) from within the respondents.

Where there was evidence of different sub-groups holding different opinions, these are reported separately so that the question of bias across the whole sample does not arise. However, it is possible that the sample was also biased with respect to other variables not investigated in the study and this is a threat to the validity of the findings. The sample of respondents is discussed in detail in 2.4.

Evidence for reliability can only be sought after the instrument has been administered. We did examine the reliability of each of the scales in Part D using the Queensland data. This assisted our decisions on the most appropriate items to include but since some items were subsequently altered, the reliability figures given here are based on the New South Wales sample.

As indicated in 2.2, Part D of the questionnaire contained 33 items requiring respondents to rate each item for its importance in schools and for the success being achieved by schools. From the 33 items, 24 were selected and grouped to form five scales (or sets of items). Even though the items in a group are conceptually alike, they also need to be associated empirically or there is little justification for summing them.

Several options were possible in quantifying the responses. For the two questions "how important is that?" and "how successful are our schools?", interviewees were asked to respond on three point scales of importance and success - "great", "moderate" and "little or none". A "don't know" option was also permitted. The pattern of responses was found to differ a little depending on how the three points were scored (for example, scored as 3, 2 and 1 or collapsed to two categories and scored as 2 and 1). However, our investigations of the different possibilities suggested that final interpretations of scale scores differed very little indeed. For the present purpose, then, it was decided to score "great" = 3; "moderate" = 2; and

"little or none" = 1. The "don't know" responses have also been scored as the middle score of "2". The number of respondents using this option is small for ratings of importance and in no case does this exceed 3.6 per cent of respondents. However, for ratings of success it does reach 13.5 per cent for one item.

Table 2.1 shows, for each of the five scales on each of the two criterion measures, the correlation between each item and the total for the scale (or, more accurately, the total with the contribution of that item omitted). These correlations indicate at least a moderate relationship between items and scale scores for all items and no correlation falls below 0.3. Table 2.1 also shows values for Cronbach alpha, an index of the internal consistency of the set of items comprising the scale. These values are not as high as one would hope for but they are moderately high considering that two of the scales contained only three items.

Finally, if the scales are to be useful as separate entities, it is also desirable that the correlations among the scales be low compared with the internal consistencies of the scales. This is the case for the two scales of "basic skills" and "cultural interests" for both sets of ratings. However, the remaining three scales - "personal development", "social competence" and "practical skills" are substantially inter-correlated. This means that they could have been further combined into one scale and given a new name to reflect the broader range of goals encompassed. Inspection of the items within these scales (Table 2.1) shows their diverse nature and their obvious links. For example, "developing ability to get along with others" is arguably as much a matter of personal development as it is a matter of social competence. This problem has arisen from the use of items in a previous instrument with a subsequent attempt to group them. Had the scales and their names been initiated in the present study with items written to match the scale names, a greater degree of homogeneity within scales and a greater degree of differentiation among scales should have been possible. Results for the present study are still reported in terms of the five scales listed but, in interpreting results, readers should remember that three of the scales are closely related.

TABLE 2.1

Item v. Total Scale Correlations and Indices of Internal Consistency for Five Scales

Scale Name	Item	Item v. Total Scale Correlation for		Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for	
		Ratings of Importance	Ratings of Success	Ratings of Importance	Ratings of Success
Basic Skills	. Teaching students how to express themselves clearly when speaking and writing	.4	.3		
	. Teaching fundamentals like reading, writing and arithmetic	.5	.5	.57	.59
	. Teaching students to read well enough to understand a newspaper	.3	.4		
Personal Development	. Giving students a good background of general knowledge	.3	.3		
	. Developing a desire to learn more throughout life	.4	.4		
	. Teaching a sense of right and wrong	.4	.3		
	. Developing the ability to think critically	.3	.3	.60	.64
	. Helping students with personal problems	.3	.4		
	. Developing interests to enable students to use leisure time beneficially	.4	.3		
	. Providing specialist help for students with learning problems	.3	.3		
Social Competence	. Developing ability to get along with others	.3	.3		
	. Helping students to understand the rights and duties of citizenship	.4	.4		
	. Teaching about government, politics and voting procedures	.4	.3	.62	.64
	. Teaching about social problems such as alcohol and drugs	.4	.4		
	. Teaching sex education	.3	.4		
	. Developing an understanding of family life	.4	.4		
Practical Skills	. Teaching wise buying habits	.5	.4		
	. Encouraging health and physical fitness	.4	.3		
	. Providing students with information and guidance for choosing a job or career	.3	.4	.64	.60
	. Teaching homemaking and handyman skills	.4	.4		
	. Providing driver education	.4	.3		
Cultural Interests	. Teaching reading for enjoyment	.4	.4		
	. Developing interest in art, literature, music, drama	.4	.4	.62	.57
	. Teaching creative and imaginative writing	.4	.4		

2.4 The Sample

As indicated in 2.1, it was decided to work with Census Districts rather than with electoral rolls in drawing the sample. Officers of the Australian Bureau of Statistics kindly assisted us in the process by drawing a random sample of 157 Census Districts[1] from Sydney and the six country cities selected.

Given the number of interviewers likely to be available, it was necessary to use different sampling ratios in different cities. One consequence of this was that final data had to be appropriately weighted to take into account these different sampling ratios. Fifteen dwellings were selected at random from each Census District and one person was selected at random from each dwelling. The probability of selection ranged from 1 in 700 in Sydney to 1 in 35 in Wagga Wagga (see Table 2.2).

TABLE 2.2

Sampling Ratios Used for Different Cities

City		Sampling Ratio
Metropolitan:	Sydney	1/700
Country:	Armidale	1/50
	Bathurst	1/50
	Goulburn	1/50
	Newcastle	1/400
	Wagga Wagga	1/35
	Wollongong	1/200

The procedures used required the selection of 15 dwellings within each Census District according to a standardised sampling plan. A group of interviewers was assigned to each Census District. Each group had available a map of the area and selected a starting point at random. A continuous path was then traced out at random to cover all streets in the area. The left or right side of the path was selected at random (by the toss of a coin). One member of the group then proceeded to the area and, beginning from the selected starting point and following the pre-determined path, identified every third dwelling. Precise rules were used to cover high rise buildings, boarding houses, empty dwellings and so on. In general, the existence of a separate letter box was used to indicate a separate dwelling. Clubs, hostels, hotels etc. were omitted.

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1 Originally 163 Census Districts were selected but six were subsequently omitted for a variety of reasons. Of these, three were selected at random within cities but the remaining three were omitted because their distant geographic location made interviews impractical.

When the required 15 dwellings had been selected, the addresses were recorded and a letter was left in each letter box indicating the general purpose of the survey and warning that an interviewer would call within the next few days. To prepare the public further for the interviews, a press release was made available to local newspapers and, in some country areas, other mass media also assisted.

Further selection occurred when the interviewer called at a dwelling. After providing appropriate identification, the interviewer was required to ascertain how many persons 18 years of age or above lived in the dwelling and how many were currently at home. From the list of persons at home (for example, grandmother, father, mother, son), the interviewer was required to select one at random and to request an interview with this person. If the time was inconvenient, the interviewer was instructed to seek a later appointment. If no-one was at home, the instruction was to call back on up to two further occasions to attempt the interview. The interviewer was instructed not to make substitutions once the dwellings had been selected.

From a target of 2355 potential interviews, 1341 (or 59.7 per cent) successful interviews were achieved (see Table 2.3). The response rate was considerably better in the country (67.5 per cent) than in Metropolitan Sydney (49.8 per cent). This was to be expected since, in some parts of Sydney, particularly in the evening when most interviews were attempted, door knocking can arouse not only suspicion but (alas) also fear.

TABLE 2.3

Numbers of Interviews Attempted and Achieved

	Institution	No. of Census Districts Allocated	Target No. of Interviews	No. of Interviews Achieved
Sydney	Catholic Teachers' College	2	30	15
	Kuring-gai C.A.E.	13	195	99
	Macquarie University	15	150	85
	Mt St Mary College	6	90	38
	Nepean C.A.E.	24	360	200
	Sydney Teachers' College	35	525	228
All city		90	1350	665 (49.8%)
Country	Armidale C.A.E.	6	90	60
	Goulburn C.A.E.	8	120	71
	Mitchell C.A.E.	8	120	98
	Newcastle C.A.E.	14	210	160
	Riverina C.A.E.	20	300	193
	Wollongong Institute of Education	11	165	94
All country		67	1005	676 (67.5%)
Total		157	2355	1341 (59.7%)

One anecdote from the present study warrants mention even if only to give lecturers in research methodology an example for their classes of how surveys can be thwarted. When most of the interviewers in Sydney were about to follow up the pre-delivered letters with attempts at interview, two men escaped from police custody. The men were considered most dangerous and, while the students diligently followed their research procedures, police were busy warning householders through press, radio and television to keep all doors and windows locked and not to open to anyone not personally known to them!

While the overall response rate was better than those obtained in the other two States, it was still quite low and hence results need to be interpreted with appropriate caution. The real problem is whether non-respondents, if they had been interviewed, would have answered differently from those actually interviewed. Two kinds of indirect evidence were sought on this issue.

In the first place, a record was kept of reasons for refusals. Where potential respondents were sick, or unable to be contacted, one might be less concerned about possible bias than in instances of direct refusal. In the Queensland study, 12.4 per cent of the target group refused an interview. In the South Australian study, the overall refusal rate was only 8 per cent. However, in the present study, 20.4 per cent of the target group refused an interview. (The figure was 25.0 per cent for the Sydney metropolitan area and 14.1 per cent for the country). While it is possible to advance possible reasons for this figure (the anecdote cited above, the large number of inexperienced interviewers involved), it is sufficiently high to raise doubts about the representativeness of the sample.

The second kind of evidence sought does suggest some bias in the sample of successful interviews. As compared with the 1976 Census statistics for New South Wales, the sample interviewed tended to include more females, more younger people in the 18-24 age bracket and fewer older people over 55 years (see Table 2.4). This is the kind of bias which might be expected from the procedures used for interviewing since these relied on availability of respondents when the interviewer called.

In terms of birthplace, the survey sample comprised a slightly lower proportion of Australian born (75.3 per cent) than the Census data (80.7 per cent). However, this difference could be attributed to the age restriction (18 years and over) placed on the survey sample.

Differences for "religion" were relatively small.

TABLE 2.4

Comparison of Survey Sample with New South Wales 1976 Census Data on Selected Demographic Variables

Variable	Category	Percentages in	
		Survey	1976 Census
Age	18-24	21.8	16.7
	25-34	22.9	22.4
	35-44	19.9	17.0
	45-54	16.8	16.8
	55+	18.5	27.1
Sex	Male	38.2	49.2
	Female	61.8	50.8
Birthplace	Australia	75.3	80.7
	UK/Ireland	10.0	7.0
	USA/Canada	0.4	0.3
	Italy	1.9	1.6
	Greece	1.1	1.0
	Yugoslavia	0.7	1.2
	Lebanon	1.2	0.7
	Other Europe	4.5	3.8
	Asia	1.6	1.3
	Other	3.2	2.2
Religion	Church of England	37.0	32.2
	Catholic	27.7	27.5
	Uniting Church Presbyterian, Methodist, Baptist	13.4	13.4
	Other Christian	7.2	7.9
	Non-Christian	3.6	1.1
	No Religion	11.1	17.9 (including "not stated")

In summary, then, the data reported in the present survey are based on a sample of 1341 respondents. When descriptive data are reported for the whole sample, appropriate weightings[2] have been applied to take account of the different sampling ratios in different cities.

2 The weights were selected to be in proportion to the sampling ratios and of such magnitude that the weighted sample N of 1334 was approximately equal to the N of 1331 actually interviewed. The latter is necessary where statistical tests are applied since statistical significance is a function of sample size.

Given the problems in sampling, descriptive data for the whole sample should be used as broad indicators rather than precise estimates of public opinion. However, these difficulties are less likely to affect the relationships among variables given later in this report.

2.5 Preparing for Interviews

The interviews were conducted by students from 12 different institutions as listed in Table 2.3. A most satisfying aspect of the study was the ready co-operation of administrators, faculty and students from these institutions.

In nearly all cases, the interview experience was built into a course in a structured way. However, the emphases were quite different depending on course objectives. For example, some courses emphasised the study of public opinions per se, others taught aspects of survey techniques while still others examined problems of measurement and scaling. The training of students through their direct involvement in the research is considered a most important spin-off of the whole project. The names of staff members and students who participated in the survey are listed in Appendix B. The fact that more than 1000 students participated (some interviewed in pairs) is an indication of the extent of student involvement. While this was most desirable from a student experience viewpoint, it did pose methodological problems. In an attempt to standardise training of the interviewers and the conduct of interviews, a training manual was produced along with detailed instructions for giving the interview. A video-tape was also produced to assist in the training of interviewers.

Lecturers from the various Colleges attended a Saturday briefing session in Sydney in March 1979. At this meeting, common procedures were agreed upon for the selection of dwellings, the training of interviewers, the conduct of interviews and the recording of results. Staff from each College then conducted their own training sessions and briefed students on procedures. Following this, all interviews were conducted during the month of April.

2.6 Analyses of Results

Much of the data reported in later chapters is purely descriptive. This is most useful where a high degree of consensus is achieved. However, when it is evident that respondents hold a range of views, it is important to ask why this might be so.

For the latter case, two approaches to data analysis have been used. In the first place, it was possible to make comparisons across sub-groups (for example, metropolitan v. country; males v. females; parents v. others and so on). A second kind of analysis examined relationships between views held and selected demographic characteristics of the respondents. The aim was to see if variations in opinions could be "explained" in terms of these other variables.

Readers should recognise that empirical associations (that is, correlations) among variables do not provide evidence that one variable causes the other, only that they are associated in some way. Researchers select variables they suspect are causally related, of course. But to tease out these variables of most importance, to discover vital predictors when several possible predictors are themselves inter-related, and to pursue concepts of cause-and-effect are difficult problems subject to lengthy technical debate. (Pages 19-20 contain a good illustration of one of these difficulties.)

Where relationships between variables are reported, readers may rest assured that the relationships have been found to be statistically significant. However, given the large N, very small differences can reach statistical significance, so this information is not very helpful and the actual tests of significance are not reported for this reason.

What is far more important is the practical or educational significance. Thus it is important to ask as well, "How big is this effect?", "What does it mean in practical terms?". In analysing and interpreting results in this report, an attempt will be made to discuss findings in terms of their practical significance.

CHAPTER 3

KNOWLEDGE ABOUT SCHOOLS

3.1 How Informed are the Public?

Respondents were asked the very broad question, "How much do you know about schools?" Table 3.1 shows the responses to this question for the New South Wales sample as well as for the samples in the other two States. In New South Wales, 58.1 per cent of the sample claimed "a lot" or "a fair amount" of knowledge about schools. This percentage was somewhat higher than those reported for the other two States, although overall the patterns of responses were similar.

TABLE 3.1

Responses to the Question, "How much do you feel you know about Schools?"

State	Claimed Knowledge (% responses)			
	A Lot	A Fair Amount	Very Little	Nothing
N.S.W. (N=1334) weighted sample	13.3	44.8	35.5	6.4
Queensland (N=948)	10.2	43.6	42.5	3.7
South Australia (N=1183)	8.1	40.9	44.8	6.1

3.2 Who Claims Most Knowledge of Schools?

Since the public was divided on the extent of claimed knowledge about schools, it is important to ask which people claimed greater knowledge of the schools. Of the demographic variables measured in Part A, two were hypothesised as being most likely to be related to claimed knowledge of schools. These were:

- number of children at school
- level of schooling of the respondent.

Clearly it would be expected that people with children at school would claim greater knowledge of schools than others. Similarly, greater knowledge of schools should result from a longer personal experience of schooling.

As indicated in Table 3.2, the latter was clearly the case. While only 31.7 per cent of respondents with no secondary education claimed to know "a lot" or "a fair amount" about schools, the corresponding figure for people with more than four years of secondary schooling was 75.8 per cent.

TABLE 3.2

Claimed Knowledge of Schools
Related to Level of Schooling

Level of Schooling	N	Claimed Knowledge of Schools (% responses)			
		A lot	A fair Amount	Very Little	Nothing
No Secondary	82	8.5	23.2	51.2	17.1
1-4 yrs. Secondary	780	7.6	42.6	42.3	7.6
>4 yrs. Secondary	472	23.5	52.3	21.4	2.8

Although the expected relationship was also found with number of children at school (see Table 3.3), the relationship was less strong and the majority of respondents with no children at school still claimed to know "a lot" or "a fair amount" about schools. However, a closer examination of the sub-group with no children at school revealed that pronounced differences still occurred depending on level of schooling. Thus 73 per cent of those with more than four years secondary schooling claimed a lot or a fair amount of knowledge about schools. However, for those with one to four years secondary schooling and those with no secondary schooling, the corresponding percentages were 42 and 32 respectively. In other words, the respondent's level of school seemed more important than having children at school in providing a knowledge of schools.

TABLE 3.3

Claimed Knowledge of Schools
Related to Number of Children at School

No. of Children at School	N	Claimed Knowledge of Schools (% responses)			
		A lot	A fair Amount	Very Little	Nothing
0	805	14.2	39.0	38.0	8.8
1	224	10.7	50.0	36.2	3.1
2	202	12.4	57.4	26.7	3.5
3	72	12.5	54.2	31.9	1.4
4 or more	31	16.1	54.8	29.0	0.0

Yet even this interpretation is over-simplified. Of the respondents with no children at school, those claiming most knowledge also tended to be people in younger age brackets. Hence it may be that recency of experience in schools is just as important a factor as length of schooling. Since those people with recent school experience are also those who have tended to stay at school longer, there is no easy way to sort out the separate effects of these two variables. The point has been laboured here to some extent but it does illustrate a fundamental problem in interpreting results from social science surveys when different predictive variables are themselves inter-related.

Overall, then, a majority of respondents felt they knew a lot or a fair amount about schools. There was some tendency for people with children at school to claim more knowledge about schools than people with no children at school. However, knowledge of schools was more strongly related to level of schooling of the respondent. When the opinions held about schools are discussed later in this report, it will be important to take into account how knowledgeable respondents claim to be about schools.

3.3 What are the Important Sources of Information about Schools?

Since a significant proportion of people were not well informed about schools, it is important to ask about the effectiveness of different means of communicating information about schools to the public. In the interview, respondents were asked how much information about schools they obtained from nine possible sources. Table 3.4 summarises the overall responses and also compares the responses with those from the South Australian sample. (The question asked in Queensland was rather different).

TABLE 3.4

Significance of Different Sources of Information about Schools

Source	Percentage who rate the source as providing a fair amount or a lot of information	
	N.S.W.	S.A.
School meetings and functions	27.0	Not asked
School staff	39.0	57.8
School newsletters	39.2	Not asked
Voluntary workers	17.9	11.0
School children	52.8	44.0
Friends, relatives	39.7	38.7
Local newspapers	23.2	21.1
State newspapers	23.3	23.9
Radio or television	28.0	24.0

Over the whole New South Wales sample, school children were rated as providing at least a fair amount of information on schools by more than half of the respondents. Friends and relatives, school newsletters and school staff were similarly rated by about 40 per cent of the sample. New South Wales respondents perceived staff as a less significant source and children as a more significant source than did South Australian respondents. Why this should be so is not clear and warrants further investigation.

In both States, the mass media were not perceived as a very significant source of information and perhaps administrators need to examine the potential here for better communication. Only about one quarter of the respondents indicated that they obtained a lot or a fair amount of information from the mass media.

There were very few differences between metropolitan and country respondents on the ratings of importance of different sources of information. Local newspapers and radio and television were perceived somewhat more significant in country areas than in the city while the reverse applied to State newspapers. For example, while about 23 per cent of Sydney respondents rated State newspapers as providing a lot or a fair amount of information, the corresponding figure f.. country respondents was only about 15 per cent.

Finally, in analysing the data on sources of information about schools, consideration was given to which sub-groups of respondents found each source of most importance. Four variables were considered in particular - the sex of the respondent, the number of children at school, the level of schooling of the respondent and the occupation of the main income earner of the household. A summary of the results is reported below by considering each of the sources in turn.

(i) School meetings or functions

Table 3.5 summarises the responses for this source. Females reported gaining more information than males from school meetings or functions. Not surprisingly, respondents with no children at school made very little use of this source of information. Persons with no secondary schooling reported gaining less information from this source than did those with at least some secondary schooling. Similarly, lower proportions of operatives and labourers reported this as a useful source of information than did other occupational groups.

TABLE 3.5

Responses of Sub-Groups to a Question on Information Obtained from School Meetings or Functions

Variable	Sub-Group	N	Percentage indicating a fair amount or a lot
Sex	Males	510	16.0
	Females	824	33.8
No. of children at school	0	805	12.7
	1	224	37.9
	>1	305	57.5
Level of schooling	No secondary	82	19.5
	1-4 yrs. secondary	780	27.3
	>4 yrs. secondary	472	27.9
Occupation [1]	Professional	275	33.8
	Managerial	278	27.0
	Clerical	200	30.0
	Craftsmen	268	28.0
	Operatives	131	18.3
	Labourers	182	18.6

1 Note that this is the occupation of the main income earner of the household, not necessarily that of the respondent.

(ii) School staff

Overall most groups reported obtaining more information from staff than from school meetings or functions. Similar differences to those noted above also occurred for this source of information, although differences between sub-groups were not as pronounced.

The results are summarised in Table 3.6.

TABLE 3.6

Responses of Sub-Groups to a Question on Information Obtained from School Staff

Variable	Sub-Group	N	Percentage indicating a fair amount or a lot
Sex	Males	510	33.8
	Females	824	42.3
No. of children at school	0	805	31.9
	1	224	42.9
	>1	305	54.8
Level of schooling	No secondary	82	22.0
	1-4 yrs. secondary	780	36.7
	>4 yrs. secondary	472	45.7
Occupation	Professional	275	51.3
	Managerial	278	41.8
	Clerical	200	44.0
	Craftsmen	268	33.2
	Operatives	131	25.2
	Labourers	182	29.1

(iii) School newsletters

As might be expected, school newsletters were relatively important sources of information for respondents with children at school. They appeared to be used more by women than by men, more by those with secondary education than by those without, and somewhat more by professional and managerial groups than by operatives and labourers. The results are summarised in Table 3.7.

TABLE 3.7

Responses of Sub-Groups to a Question on Information Obtained from School Newsletters

Variable	Sub-Group	N	Percentage indicating a fair amount or a lot
Sex	Males	510	27.7
	Females	824	46.4
No. of children at school	0	805	18.6
	1	224	63.4
	>1	305	75.7
Level of schooling	No secondary	82	24.4
	1-4 yrs. secondary	780	42.5
	> 4 yrs. secondary	472	36.5
Occupation	Professional	275	41.0
	Managerial	278	46.4
	Clerical	200	38.0
	Craftsmen	268	38.0
	Operatives	131	35.1
	Labourers	182	31.3

(iv) Voluntary workers

Of the sources of information included, this one provided the lowest ratings. Responses were not related to levels of schooling of respondents or to occupation. However, women made more use of this source than men and responses were closely related to the number of children attending school (Table 3.8).

TABLE 3.8

Responses of Sub-Groups to a Question on Information Obtained from Voluntary Workers

Variable	Sub-Group	N	Percentage indicating a fair amount or a lot
Sex	Males	510	10.4
	Females	824	22.5
No. of children at school	0	805	12.8
	1	224	14.8
	2	202	27.2
	3	72	37.5
	≥ 4	31	54.5
Level of schooling	No secondary	82	13.4
	1-4 yrs. secondary	780	19.6
	> 4 yrs. secondary	472	15.7
Occupation	Professional	275	19.3
	Managerial	278	19.0
	Clerical	200	13.0
	Craftsmen	268	20.6
	Operatives	131	16.8
	Labourers	182	15.9

(v) School children

For each of the four school based sources of information discussed above, men obtained less information than women. However, no sex difference was evident when children were considered as the source of information. There was a tendency for the amount of information obtained through school children to be related to level of schooling and to occupation. A summary of responses is given in Table 3.9.

TABLE 3.9

Responses of Sub-Groups to a Question on Information Obtained from School Children

Variable	Sub-Group	N	Percentage indicating a fair amount or a lot
Sex	Male	510	53.0
	Female	824	52.8
No. of children at school	0	805	43.9
	1	224	57.6
	> 1	305	73.2
Level of schooling	No secondary	82	46.4
	1-4 yrs. secondary	780	50.0
	> 4 yrs. secondary	472	58.6
Occupation	Professional	275	60.0
	Managerial	278	57.5
	Clerical	200	54.0
	Craftsmen	268	46.3
	Operatives	131	49.6
	Labourers	182	45.6

(vi) Friends and relatives

Friends and relatives provided an important source of information for people who had no children at school (Table 3.10). Information from this source was also related to level of schooling but no sex differences were evident. There were also few differences amongst different occupational groups.

TABLE 3.10

Responses of Sub-Groups to a Question on Information Obtained from Friends and Relatives

Variable	Sub-Group	N	Percentage indicating a fair amount or a lot
Sex	Male	510	39.4
	Female	824	39.8
No. of children at school	0	805	45.2
	1	224	34.4
	> 1	305	28.9
Level of schooling	No secondary	82	29.2
	1-4 yrs. secondary	780	38.0
	> 4 yrs. secondary	472	44.3
Occupation	Professional	275	44.0
	Managerial	278	46.8
	Clerical	200	39.0
	Craftsmen	268	32.5
	Operatives	131	31.3
	Labourers	182	39.6

(vii) Mass media

Finally, three forms of the mass media were considered as information sources - local newspapers, State newspapers and radio or television. Results for all three are summarised in Table 3.11. In view of the differences among sub-groups for the sources of information discussed previously, perhaps the most remarkable feature of the responses here was their relative uniformity across different sub-groups. Thus there were few differences between males and females, or amongst educational levels, or amongst occupational groups in terms of the amount of information gained from each of the three forms of media. The responses indicated that people with no children at school relied more heavily on newspapers, radio and television for information about schools than did those with children at school. As noted earlier, however, the proportion of people overall who obtained a fair amount or a lot of information about schools through the mass media was quite low.

TABLE 3.11

Responses of Sub-Groups to a Question on Information Obtained from Three Forms of Media

Variable	Sub-Group	N	Percentage indicating a fair amount or a lot for		
			Local newspapers	State newspapers	Radio or television
Sex	Male	510	21.6	23.1	27.4
	Female	824	24.2	23.4	28.3
No. of children at school	0	805	26.7	26.5	30.9
	1	224	22.4	21.0	24.6
	> 1	305	11.1	16.7	22.6
Level of schooling	No secondary	82	22.0	24.4	32.9
	1-4 yrs. secondary	780	22.8	20.3	26.7
	> 4 yrs. secondary	472	23.9	28.1	29.3
Occupation	Professional	275	24.4	24.3	28.0
	Managerial	278	22.7	26.6	25.2
	Clerical	200	21.5	27.0	23.0
	Craftsmen	268	23.9	15.3	27.6
	Operatives	131	22.9	27.5	32.1
	Labourers	182	23.1	21.4	35.2

From the above, it is possible to summarise some broad trends whereby different sub-groups of people acquire information about schools. Knowledge of such trends should assist those desirous of improving communication about schools to the public.

Those sources of information which were essentially school based (meetings, staff, newsletters, voluntary workers) tended to be used most in general and most of all by women, by those with higher levels of schooling themselves and by those with higher occupational levels. Naturally they were also most important sources of information for persons with children at school.

It is difficult to infer from the present survey whether more use of these school-based information sources reflects greater interest in what happens in schools or whether it simply reflects better opportunities to find out what happens. It might be expected that women would have more opportunities to visit schools than men and similarly that persons in professional or managerial roles would have more flexibility in work hours than operatives or labourers, thus permitting more opportunities to attend school functions, meet staff and so on.

When sources of information external to the school (friends, press, radio or television) were considered, most of the differences disappeared. The amount of information obtained from these sources, presumably more readily available to all sub-groups, was generally not related to sex, level of schooling or occupational level. This would suggest that the differences among the sub-groups discussed above do tend to reflect differences in opportunities rather than differences in interest.

The mass media were not dominant sources of information about schools and further potential exists for increased use of newspapers, radio and television for communicating with the public. Moreover, the similar use of these sources by people of different educational levels and occupations adds to their attractiveness as a means of communication with the public at large.

School children as a source of information have not so far been mentioned in this summary. Here there was some evidence to suggest that people with more schooling themselves and those in higher occupational levels tended to use children as their source of information about schools more than did other people. In sociological terms, it would not be difficult to speculate about why this might be so. But perhaps more importantly, it might be noted that school children formed a major source of information for all sub-groups. Hence those anxious to improve communication about schools might consider ways in which this unique form of communication might be facilitated. It may be that a good way to communicate to the public the rationale for major policy decisions in education, the reasons for major curriculum decisions, the purposes behind certain kinds of school organisation, and so on, is to ensure that children in school have discussed and understood these as fully as possible.

CHAPTER 4

WHAT BROAD OPINIONS ARE HELD ABOUT SCHOOLS?

4.1 How Well are Schools Regarded?

The surveys in all three States asked a similar question about the grading of schools. The question was worded, "Students are often given grades in school. Suppose you had to grade the schools themselves, how would you grade the primary (secondary) school you know best?" Responses on a five point scale ranging from "excellent" to "very poor" are summarised in Table 4.1.

TABLE 4.1

Grading of School Known Best

State	Level	Excellent %	Good %	Satisfactory %	Poor %	Very Poor %
N.S.W.	Primary	18.0	48.2	26.5	5.2	2.1
	Secondary	16.6	41.2	30.1	8.5	3.6
Queensland	Primary	25.8	42.1	27.6	4.1	0.4
	Secondary	24.2	43.6	26.1	4.1	2.0
S.A.	Primary	16.0	44.0	30.7	7.8	1.6
	Secondary	18.1	39.5	31.7	8.9	1.8

N.B. "Don't know" responses - 12.6 per cent for N.S.W., 19.2 per cent for Queensland and 23.0 per cent for South Australia - have been omitted.

The strongest point to be made from this table is that overall the public expressed a high level of satisfaction with schools. The ratings were highest in Queensland where more than two-thirds of those who graded schools rated them as "excellent" or "good". The biggest difference between the ratings for primary and secondary schools occurred in New South Wales with primary schools receiving somewhat higher ratings.

The inter-State differences need to be interpreted with due caution. It must be remembered that the data were collected at different times and by different sampling methods. Moreover, although the differences easily reach statistical significance because of the large sample sizes, they are relatively small in practical terms.

After being asked to rate the school they knew best, respondents were then asked whether that school was a government, Catholic or other independent school. The distributions of ratings across these three categories are shown in Table 4.2.

TABLE 4.2

Ratings of Primary and Secondary Schools Known Best for Government, Catholic and Independent Schools

Level	School Type	N	Percentages of Respondents Expressing an Opinion				
			Ratings				
			Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Poor	Very poor
Primary Schools	Government	935	16.9	49.1	26.4	5.2	2.3
	Catholic	202	19.3	49.5	26.2	3.9	1.0
	Independent	36	27.8	50.0	16.7	5.6	0.0
Secondary Schools	Government	858	12.6	41.1	32.8	9.7	3.8
	Catholic	220	21.8	45.9	29.1	1.0	2.3
	Independent	66	50.0	39.4	6.1	4.6	0.0

For primary schools, there was little difference between ratings for government and Catholic schools but independent schools received somewhat higher ratings. For independent schools, about 78 per cent of respondents rated the schools as excellent or good (although the N was quite small).

A similar pattern applied to secondary schools but the differences were far more pronounced. Of the persons who rated government schools, about 54 per cent rated them as excellent or good. But the corresponding figures for Catholic and independent schools were 68 per cent and 89 per cent respectively. For independent secondary schools in particular, it appears that clients, or at least those persons who profess to know these schools best, are highly satisfied with their performance.

4.2 Perceptions of Work in Primary Schools

Curricula in primary schools have undergone considerable change in recent years allowing more freedom for teachers to decide what to teach and how to organise learning experiences. In general, this resulted initially in greater flexibility in both teaching methods and physical layout of classrooms. More recently there has been a backlash against this flexibility with pleas for more structure in schooling, more concern for basic skills and greater attention to "standards" of achievement.

It is beyond the scope of this report to summarise the extensive literature which has now evolved in the standards debate. However, the questionnaire did include two questions designed to assess public opinion on some aspects of what happens in primary schools. Had the instrument been designed in 1979, these questions would have been worded rather differently. As it was, a form of words similar to that used in the other two States was retained to permit some comparisons.

In one question, people were asked whether they thought that "primary school children were given too much school work to do these days". The responses were fairly consistent across the three States with the vast majority of respondents disagreeing with the statement (see Table 4.3). Because of the high degree of consensus, no attempt was made to relate responses on this question to other variables.

TABLE 4.3

Reactions to the Proposition that Primary School Children are Given Too Much School Work (Work too Hard)

State	N Expressing an Opinion	Percentage of respondents who		N "Don't Know" (%)
		Agree	Disagree	
N.S.W.	1125	12.4	87.6	209 (15.7)
Queensland	806	10.5	89.5	142 (15.0)
S.A.	1078	4.4	95.6	105 (8.9)

A second question relating to perceptions of what happens in primary schools asked people to respond to the statement, "Much of what seems to be happening in primary schools these days is just 'playing about'". Responses for the three States are summarised in Table 4.4. In New South Wales, two-thirds of those expressing an opinion disagreed with the statement indicating that they considered that activities within the primary school curriculum made productive use of student time. On this occasion, inter-State differences were more pronounced. The Queensland sample had the highest proportion unwilling to express an opinion (22.6 per cent) but also the highest proportion of respondents disagreeing with the statement (71.7 per cent of those expressing an opinion). These figures contrasted most with those from the South Australian sample.

TABLE 4.4

Reactions to the Proposition that Much of What Happens in Primary Schools is 'Playing About'

State	N Expressing an Opinion	Percentage of respondents who		N "Don't Know" (%)
		Agree	Disagree	
N.S.W.	1110	33.3	66.7	224 (16.8)
Queensland	734	28.3	71.7	214 (22.6)
S.A.	1026	41.0	59.0	157 (13.3)

In summary, it was noted in 4.1 that the public expressed a fairly high level of satisfaction with primary schools. There was high agreement that primary school children are not made to work too hard, but a majority of respondents viewed the activities of primary schools as making productive use of student time.

Since there was a divergence of opinion on whether primary school activities were largely 'playing about', these opinions were related to a number of other variables. Higher proportions of disagreement with the statement came from those claiming more knowledge of schools and from those with more children at school.

4.3 Perceptions of the Work and Role of Secondary Schools

Questions similar to those discussed in 4.2 were asked of the work of secondary schools. Thus Table 4.5 summarises opinions on the statement that "secondary school students are made to work too hard these days". Once again there was a fairly high level of consensus that this was not the case. However, for all three States, the proportions of people disagreeing with the statement were a little lower than those for the similar question on primary schools. The opinions were not related to level of schooling, number of children at school or claimed knowledge of schools.

TABLE 4.5

Reactions to the Proposition that Secondary School Children Are Made to Work Too Hard

State	N Expressing an Opinion	Percentage of respondents who		N "Don't Know" (%)
		Agree	Disagree	
N.S.W.	1191	18.8	81.2	143 (10.7)
Queensland	769	15.7	84.3	179 (18.9)
S.A.	1028	12.5	87.5	155 (13.1)

In a further question, respondents were asked if they considered that "much of what is happening in secondary schools these days is just a waste of time for students". Responses were similar to those obtained for the parallel question on primary schools. For the New South Wales sample, about 64 per cent of those who expressed an opinion disagreed with the statement (Table 4.6). A significantly higher proportion of respondents from Queensland than from the other two States disagreed with the proposition.

TABLE 4.6

Reactions to the Proposition that Much of What Happens in Secondary Schools is a Waste of Time

State	N Expressing an Opinion	Percentage of respondents who		N "Don't Know" (%)
		Agree	Disagree	
N.S.W.	1155	36.1	63.9	179 (13.4)
Queensland	733	27.7	72.3	215 (22.7)
S.A.	988	37.6	62.4	195 (16.5)

Responses to two further questions gave some insight into what the public perceive as an appropriate role for secondary schools. As unemployment amongst school leavers has risen sharply, government has tended to emphasise the vocational training role of schools. Although this emphasis has not gone unchallenged, debate within the media has also tended to focus on the need for schools to prepare students for the workforce. The need has been accentuated as higher proportions of an age cohort have remained to the end of secondary schooling but the numbers entering higher education have remained fairly stable.

Interviewers were asked if they considered that in secondary schools, too much emphasis was placed on preparation for higher education and if too much emphasis was given to preparing students for jobs.

Overall the patterns of responses were similar across the three States (Table 4.7). In general, opinion was divided on the proposition that too much emphasis was given to preparation for higher education. Thus in New South Wales, 46 per cent of the sample agreed but 42 per cent disagreed. Queensland and South Australia differed most on this question with a higher proportion (52 per cent) of the South Australian sample showing agreement than was the case in Queensland (32 per cent).

On the second question relating to preparation for work, a great deal more consensus was achieved in each State. A high proportion of interviewees (ranging from 84 per cent in New South Wales to 76 per cent in South Australia) disagreed that too much emphasis was given to preparation for jobs. Unfortunately the poor wording of the question does not allow ready interpretation that the public are dissatisfied with the emphasis given to job preparation. Disagreement with the statement could indicate satisfaction with the present emphasis. However, responses to other questions in Part D (to be discussed later) give a fairly clear indication that most people considered the schools could do far more in the way of job preparation and career information and guidance.

TABLE 4.7

Responses to the Propositions that Too Much Emphasis is Given to Preparation for Higher Education and to Job Preparation

State	N	Preparation for Higher Education %			Preparation for Jobs %		
		Agree	Disagree	Don't Know	Agree	Disagree	Don't Know
N.S.W.	1334	46.0	41.9	12.1	7.6	84.0	8.4
Queensland	948	31.8	50.0	18.2	9.5	77.6	13.0
S.A.	1183	52.0	33.3	14.7	12.4	76.2	11.4

The opinions expressed on preparation for higher education and preparation for jobs were not strongly related to other variables. However, some difference was evident on the latter between respondents in metropolitan Sydney and those in the country. Of the country respondents, a very high 89 per cent disagreed that too much emphasis was given to preparation for jobs.

4.4 External Examinations

The role of external examinations continues to be a subject of heated debate in New South Wales. The topic of "assessment" was one included in a series of public seminars held in Sydney and country areas late in 1978. Recently the Higher School Certificate Examination was the subject of an inquiry by an external panel and the School Certificate is presently under review by a parliamentary committee.

The survey in Queensland was conducted several years after the introduction of the Radford Committee recommendations on the abolition of external examinations. Yet that survey showed that 67.4 per cent of those who expressed an opinion still favoured a compulsory external public examination for all secondary students. On the other hand, other studies (for example, Campbell and Campbell, 1978) have indicated quite clearly that the profession had no wish to return to external examinations.

The South Australian study did not include a question on external examinations. However, some further evidence on how the public views external examinations comes from a recent review of the Australian Capital Territory Schools Accrediting Agency (Selby Smith et al., 1979). In 1972, the Campbell Committee recommended that the New South Wales Higher School Certificate examination be no longer used in the Australian Capital Territory and that it be replaced by a school-based system of continuous assessment appropriately moderated to give comparability across schools and courses. The recommendation was implemented in the secondary colleges beginning with Year 11 students in 1976. The 1979 review gives clear evidence that the new system without external examinations has been well accepted by students and by their parents. However, some employers and employer groups still favoured an external examination.

In New South Wales, the present situation is that the School Certificate is awarded at the end of Year 10 on the basis of schools' assessments of their students. Some external reference tests are used for moderating purposes. The Year 12 Higher School Certificate is 50 per cent internal and 50 per cent external. Results on the external examination are used to scale internal assessments. Given the continuing debate in New South Wales about external examinations, it was decided to ask two questions in the survey relating to external examinations. Interviewees were asked if they agreed or disagreed with the following statements:

- all students taking the School Certificate after Grade 10 should sit for an external exam as at least part of their assessment.

. all students taking the Higher School Certificate after Grade 12 should sit for an external exam as at least part of their assessment.

The results for the New South Wales sample are summarised in Table 4.8. There was a very strong vote in favour of external examinations as at least part of the assessment at both Year 10 and Year 12 levels. Also, the proportion of people giving a "don't know" response was quite small and lower than for any of the other opinions sought in Part B of the questionnaire.

TABLE 4.8

Reactions to the Proposition that an External Examination Should Form at Least Part of Assessment in Secondary Schools

School Certificate (Year 10)			Higher School Certificate (Year 12)		
Percentage who			Percentage who		
Agree	Disagree	Don't Know	Agree	Disagree	Don't Know
78.7	15.4	5.8	82.5	12.4	5.1

There tended to be little or no relationship between responses to these questions and the variables of religion, number of children and number of children at school. Responses were related to level of schooling of the respondent with higher proportions of those with more schooling favouring the external examination. However, the use of the "don't know" category was also strongly related to level of schooling (see Table 4.9). Of the respondents with more than four years of secondary education, a high 87.5 per cent favoured an external examination at Year 12 level.

TABLE 4.9

Opinions on External Examinations Related to Level of Schooling of Respondents

Level of Schooling	Year 10 Percentage who			Year 12 Percentage who		
	Agree	Disagree	Don't know	Agree	Disagree	Don't know
No secondary (N=82)	70.8	9.8	19.5	72.0	6.1	21.9
1-4 years secondary (N=780)	77.4	16.4	6.2	80.6	14.4	5.0
> 4 years secondary (N=472)	82.2	14.8	3.0	87.5	10.2	2.3

Opinions on external examinations were also related to ages of respondents. In the Queensland survey, it was found that older groups were more likely to favour a compulsory external examination while for the youngest age group opinion was quite divided (Table 4.10). In the New South Wales sample, a somewhat different pattern emerged. While again there was a tendency for more older people to favour an external examination, more of the 18-24 years age group than of the 25-34 age group favoured an external examination (Table 4.10). The present survey gives no evidence on why this should be the case. However, one might speculate that the difficulties experienced in securing employment in the youngest age bracket might affect their opinions on the worth of an external examination particularly if employers give considerable weight to this in a competitive job market.

TABLE 4.10

Opinions on External Examinations Related to Age for Respondents from Two States

Age Level	Queensland			New South Wales					
				Year 10			Year 12		
	Percentage who			Percentage who			Percentage who		
	Agree	Disagree	Don't know	Agree	Disagree	Don't know	Agree	Disagree	Don't know
18-24	46.6	44.6	8.8	77.1	21.3	1.6	80.4	17.5	2.1
25-34	54.0	34.7	11.3	69.3	24.8	5.9	75.5	19.0	5.6
35-44	60.2	28.1	11.7	80.8	13.5	5.6	84.6	9.8	5.6
45-54	66.3	19.3	14.4	88.4	4.0	7.6	92.9	2.2	4.9
55+	66.3	21.6	12.1	80.6	9.3	10.1	82.2	10.1	7.7

In summary, people in the New South Wales sample were still strongly in favour of an external examination at both Year 10 and Year 12 levels. This is in spite of the fact that no external examination has formed part of the Year 10 assessment for several years. It is not the place of the present report to debate the pros and cons of external examinations. Clearly there were good educational reasons for the decision to abandon the external examination at the School Certificate level. Other research evidence tends to indicate that teachers have little or no desire to return to an external examination. Internal assessment has been widely accepted in the Australian Capital Territory and would appear to be gaining more acceptance in Queensland particularly for younger age groups. Why then should the New South Wales sample opt so clearly for the use of external examinations? The topic has received wide media coverage and much criticism has been voiced on the lack of credibility of the internally assessed School Certificate. Undoubtedly the public have been influenced by a variety of factors. However, this may also be an indication of the need for better communication of the rationale for major policy decisions.

4.5 Cause of Poor Performance

In recent years a good deal has been written about failure in schools (for example, Holt, 1969) and the need for schools to cater for the needs of individual students. In order to combat the expectation that some children will always perform poorly, some writers (Bloom, 1971) have advocated a mastery model of learning. The expectation under this model is that the vast majority of students will be able to achieve the fundamental curriculum objectives but that some students will require much more time and assistance than others.

The mastery learning approach has had some influence on school practice and has been accompanied by other advances in instructional psychology which mesh in with this approach. Examples include the work on learning hierarchies, the emphasis on behavioural objectives, the provision of reinforcement in individualised programs of instruction and the growth of criterion-referenced approaches to testing. However, except in isolated instances, school organisation has not altered to accommodate such changes. Even where schools are given a good deal of autonomy in curriculum decision-making, fixed time-tables, the lock-step system and methods of grading and reporting of results all tend to work with class groups rather than with individual pupils.

Whether or not it would be possible to reduce poor performance substantially through a radical reorganisation of schools is not clear. However, it is clear that, within the present school system, there are some children who do perform poorly. One question asked of interviewees sought their opinions on what was the chief cause of poor performance by children in school. Six options were provided - children themselves, parents, teachers, the school system, society generally, or some other cause. Results for the three States are summarised in Table 4.11. However, since the instrument used in Queensland did not include an "other" category, this category has been combined with the "Don't know" category in Table 4.11.

TABLE 4.11

Opinions on the Chief Cause of Poor Performance in Schools for Three States

Chief Cause	% of Interviewees		
	N.S.W. (N = 1334)	Qld. (N = 948)	S.A. (N = 1183)
Children	10.3	13.5	13.2
Parents	18.1	24.0	20.1
Teachers	13.8	10.3	10.4
School system	23.3	20.5	19.9
Society generally	17.5	20.1	25.1
Other or Don't know	17.0	11.6	11.3

Overall the pattern of results is fairly similar across the three States with the school system, parents and society generally being selected most often. The reports of the Queensland and South Australian studies drew attention to the relatively low proportion of respondents who blamed teachers for the poor performance of students. Although the proportion of the New South Wales sample choosing teachers was a little higher, the figure was still low compared with those of the three other causes noted above.

Some relationships were evident between causes attributed to poor performance and age brackets of respondents (Table 4.12). In common with the Queensland sample, New South Wales respondents in the 18-24 age group attributed chief blame to the school system (29.2 per cent) and the society generally (22.0 per cent). For the 25-34 age group, the school system (27.1 per cent) and parents (21.9 per cent) were cited most often; for persons in the 35-44 age group, the school system (23.7 per cent) was again the dominant cause selected while the 45-54 group selected society generally (21.9 per cent) in addition to the school system (23.2 per cent). Again in keeping with the findings of the Queensland study, the oldest group (55+ years) selected parents (28.7 per cent) most often. The Queensland study also noted that the frequency of selection of teachers as the chief cause rose steadily with age. This also occurred in the New South Wales sample except for the 55+ age group.

TABLE 4.12

Opinions on the Chief Cause of Poor Performance by Age of Respondents

Age Level (years)	% of Respondents who attribute chief cause to						
	Children	Parents	Teachers	School System	Generally	Other	Don't know
18-24	11.0	13.1	12.0	29.2	22.0	10.0	2.7
25-34	5.9	21.9	14.1	27.1	15.7	12.4	2.9
35-44	10.5	14.7	14.7	23.7	14.7	15.0	6.8
45-54	9.4	11.6	17.9	23.2	21.9	13.4	2.7
55+	15.4	28.7	10.9	11.3	13.8	10.1	9.7

4.6 Priorities in Funding

The Queensland questionnaire had asked respondents to assume that more government funds had become available and they were then asked for their preferences in allocating these funds. The choices offered in competition with the education sector were health, law enforcement, highways, defence, and social welfare. This was followed by a question about preferences for additional funding within the education sector.

The researchers in South Australia decided not to ask the former question but to ask instead for preferences for both increasing and decreasing funds within areas of education. The New South Wales study followed suit, although the categories used within the education sector were modified slightly.

The Queensland study reported that, on the assumption that extra Government funds were available for education, "more respondents gave primary schools first priority than any other category and more gave secondary their second and third priority than any other category" (Botsman and Browne, 1977, p.54). When a weighted total based on the first three preferences was formed, the two sectors receiving the highest weights were primary schools and secondary schools in that order. Technical education ranked third. The report noted some differences related to sex of respondent, age and level of schooling. However, although the differences were statistically significant, the magnitudes of the differences were not great.

A fairly similar pattern emerged from the South Australian data where it was reported that "first preference for more money emphasises primary and secondary and there is an unwillingness to contribute to the adult, advanced or university sectors" (Dunne, 1978, p.32). Weighted totals based on the first three preferences again showed secondary and primary sectors receiving most favour with technical education being ranked third.

When respondents from the South Australian study were asked to rank sectors to receive cuts in funding, the category "none" was ranked first followed by a spread of rankings across the areas of universities, adult education and pre-schools. The "Don't know" category was an equally popular choice.

For the New South Wales sample, similar results emerge. Secondary and primary education sectors tended to dominate the first preferences for additional funds with slightly more preference being given to the former. Based on a weighted total (first choice X 3 plus second choice X 2 plus third choice), the three sectors which received the highest totals were secondary, primary and technical in that order. These three sectors were ranked well above all others. (Of course this procedure of weighting ranks is a dubious one but alternative methods of treating the data would yield little or no difference in interpretation of findings).

Although some differences were observed for different sub-groups of respondents, once again these differences were relatively slight. Regardless of the sex, age, number of children or educational level of respondents, the overall rank ordering of preferences is similar.

When asked to nominate sectors where funding might be reduced, respondents opted most frequently for the category "none". The next two sectors in order were pre-schools and universities, although the "no opinion" category was also included fairly often.

It would not be wise to make too much of the data presented in this section. After all, it would be unrealistic to expect that sectors of education which cater for limited numbers of people would receive

strong support for additional funding from the public at large. Certainly it is not surprising that the mainstream sectors of secondary and primary education receive the highest rankings. Nevertheless, the consistent pattern of responses across all surveys suggests that secondary and primary schools might expect fairly strong support for increased expenditure while there would be considerable resistance to cuts in spending.

4.7 Support for Independent Schools

Government support for independent schools is probably not as contentious an issue as it was several years ago when the question of "State aid" for independent schools was hotly debated. Perhaps the role of the Schools Commission in determining the level of recurrent grants and in establishing and administering criteria for the award of capital grants to independent schools has done much to ensure the public of the fairness of awards made. Thus the Commission has been described by some as the "umpire" in the distribution of government funds to non-government schools. Nevertheless, there has been some strong and organised advocacy for better support for government schools at the expense of the non-government ones. On one occasion, this has even led to a legal challenge in the courts. Hence it was decided to ask the following question - "In the past, there has been much debate about the government funding of private schools. What is your view on the present level of government funding for private schools?"

Responses are presented below for the sample as a whole. Naturally it would be expected that parents of children attending independent schools would favour further support for these schools. Thus it is important to consider the characteristics of the whole sample in interpreting findings. Of the whole sample, 39 per cent had children in schools and of these 72.8 per cent were in government schools, 20.6 per cent in Catholic schools and 6.6 per cent in other independent schools. Thus fewer than 11 per cent of the total sample had children in non-government schools.

Table 4.13 summarises the responses. About 44 per cent of those who expressed an opinion (21.4 per cent of the sample recorded a "don't know" response) considered the level of funding was too high, while 20.5 per cent thought it was insufficient. These percentages are difficult to evaluate in absolute terms but they could be used as base-line data for comparisons with future polls on this topic.

TABLE 4.13

Opinions on the Levels of Government Funding to Independent Schools

Opinion	% of total sample	% of those expressing an opinion
Too much	34.8	44.3
About right	27.7	35.2
Too little	16.1	20.5
Don't know	21.4	

4.8 Present Quality of Schools

Finally in this Chapter on the broad opinions that are held about schools, consideration is given to a global question which endeavoured to tap public opinion on changes in the quality of education. Interviewers were asked if they thought children today received a better education than the one they had received. Results for the three States are summarised in Table 4.14.

TABLE 4.14

Opinions on the Proposition that Children Today Receive a Better Education than Interviewees did in the Past

State	N expressing an opinion	% of Respondents		N Don't know (%)
		Agree	Disagree	
N.S.W.	1225	56.7	43.3	109 (8.2)
Qld.	865	66.7	33.3	77 (8.1)
S.A.	1124	59.6	40.4	59 (5.0)

The responses were most favourable in Queensland where two-thirds of those expressing an opinion agreed that children today did receive a better education. In contrast, only 56.7 per cent of the New South Wales sample expressed this opinion.

For the New South Wales sample, opinions on this question were related to age, level of schooling and number of children at school. In general, those people more likely to think that today's education is better are those who are older, who have had fewer years of schooling themselves and who have more children at school. Details of these relationships may be found in Tables 4.15, 4.16 and 4.17. Similar patterns of relationships were evident in the Queensland data (with the exception of the two oldest age groups).

The relationship with age is to be expected since one would anticipate that the perceived improvements in schools would be more pronounced for older people. Moreover, it would be expected that older people would also anticipate that children today have greater opportunities through formal education. Similarly, respondents with lower educational levels themselves would be expected to see better educational opportunities offered today. The relationship with number of children at school is an interesting one although it may in part simply reflect the relationship with age.

TABLE 4.15

Opinions that Children Today Receive a Better Education Related to Age of Respondent

Age Group	% who		
	Agree	Disagree	Don't know
18-24	26.5	51.5	22.0
25-34	48.0	46.1	5.9
35-44	56.8	37.6	5.6
45-54	67.4	32.1	0.4
55+	68.0	27.5	4.5

TABLE 4.16

Opinions that Children Today Receive a Better Education Related to Level of Schooling of Respondent

Level of Schooling	% who		
	Agree	Disagree	Don't know
No secondary	64.6	24.4	11.0
1-4 years secondary	59.6	32.2	8.2
> 4 years secondary	37.3	55.1	7.6

TABLE 4.17

Opinions that Children Today Receive a Better Education Related to Number of Children of the Respondent at School

No. of children at school	% who		
	Agree	Disagree	Don't know
0	48.3	41.2	10.4
1	47.8	46.9	5.4
2	59.4	37.6	3.0
3	73.6	19.4	6.9
4+	80.5	13.0	6.5

In summary, although a majority of respondents thought that children today received a better education than they had done, the relatively high proportion who disagreed is a matter of some concern. The response for New South Wales was the least favourable of the three States. The sub-group with more than four years secondary education was most critical with a majority of those expressing an opinion disagreeing with the proposition.

CHAPTER 5

WHAT GOALS ARE GIVEN MOST PROMINENCE?

5.1 Classification of School Goals

Part D of the questionnaire comprised 33 items related to what schools might try to achieve or what they might emphasise in their curricula. Interviewees were asked to consider each goal in turn and to rate it on two separate three point scales, namely,

- its importance for schools
- the success of schools in achieving that goal.

The interview format provided for the repeated statement of each item prior to the second rating. The responses from which interviewees were asked to select were "great", "moderate" and "little or none". This Chapter is concerned with the first rating of each item, that of its importance.

As explained in 2.2, 24 of the items were able to be grouped into clusters and scaled. Five scales were formed and these were labelled as follows:

- Basic skills
- Personal development
- Social competence
- Practical skills
- Cultural interests.

While the names suggest the kinds of goal statements included, the reader may obtain more precise information on the items in each scale by referring back to Table 2.1. Questions of the validity and the reliability of the scales were also considered previously in 2.3.

The remaining nine items did not fit easily into the five scales and so these were considered separately.

5.2 The Importance of Clusters of Goals

Given the five broad clusters of goals identified above, which goals were regarded as of most importance to members of the public? Responses to this question have been summarised graphically in Figure 5.1. For each goal a mean and standard deviation were calculated and adjustments were made to take into account the differing numbers of items in different scales. The mean for each scale has been plotted on the graph and a vertical line used to indicate one standard deviation either side of the mean. (When the distribution of response scores is normal ("bell-shaped"), about 68 per cent of the scores occur within this range). Clearly the length of this line indicates the spread of opinion about the importance of the scale with the shortest lines corresponding to most consensus.

The graph indicates that the public rated the teaching of basic skills as the most important function of schools. This scale also had the highest degree of consensus (lowest standard deviation). Personal development of students was rated next and the other scales received lower ratings. However, it should be noted that all means were well above the scale score of "2" corresponding to "moderate" importance. That is, all means fell between "great" and "moderate" and thus all goals were regarded as important functions for schools. Most spread of opinion on the importance of the goals occurred for cultural interests and practical skills.

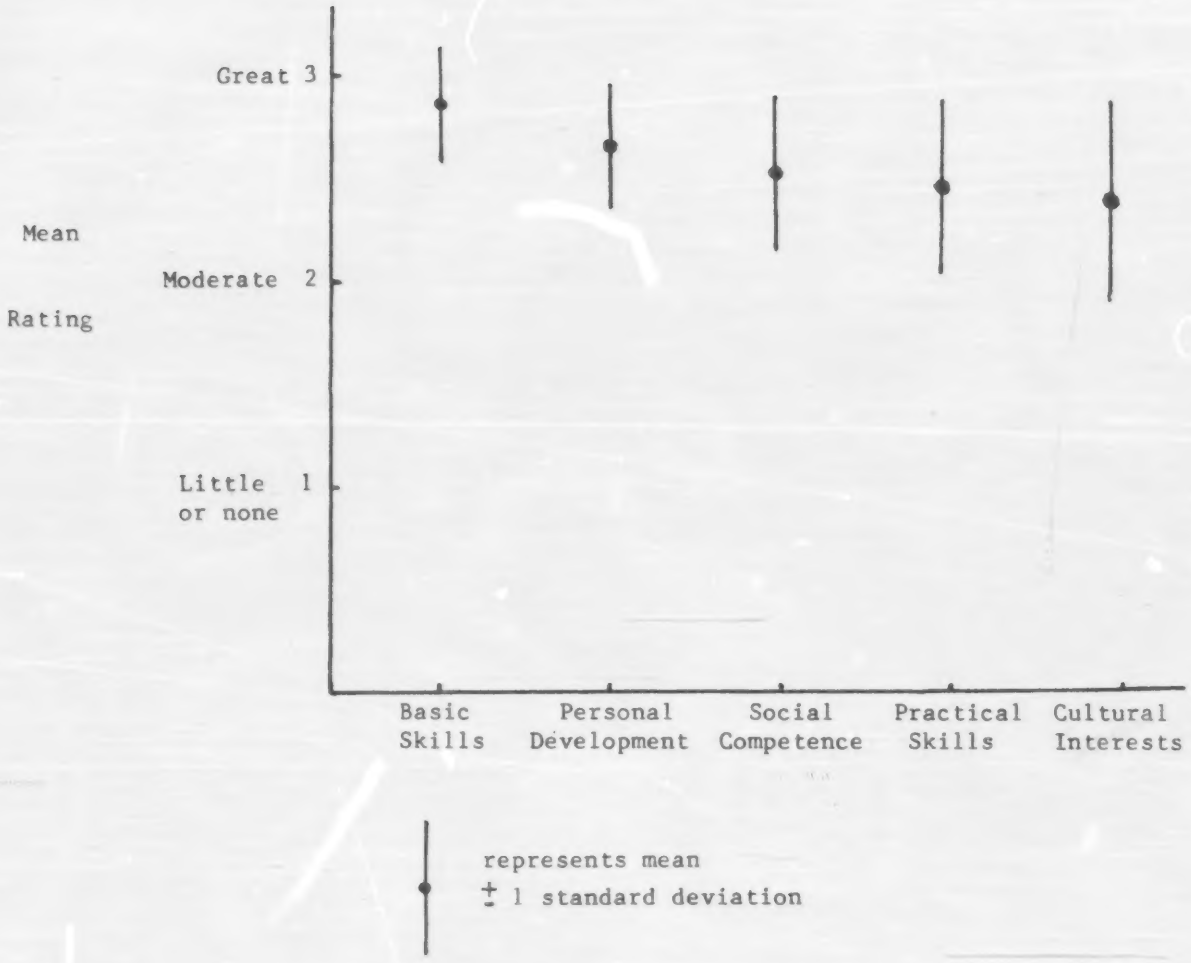


Figure 5.1 Mean ratings of importance on five scales

5.3 Comparisons with Other States

The emergence of basic skills as the scale with the highest rating of importance was consistent with the findings of the Queensland study. That study did not group items into scales but considered each item separately. A salience score was calculated by finding the percentage of respondents who rated an item as of great or moderate importance and subtracting the percentage who rated the item of little or no importance. Items were then ranked in order of salience scores. The top four ranks included three goals relating to basic skills and one relating to insistence on politeness by students.

The South Australian study also produced a parallel finding. The researchers decided to classify items not only in terms of their rated importance but also in terms of the degree of unanimity amongst respondents. Thus if more than 90 per cent of respondents placed an item in the one category, the item was rated as having extremely high unanimity. The researchers reported that three items were of great importance and extremely high unanimity. The three items in question were the same three items used to form the basic skills scale in the New South Wales study.

The South Australian study identified three other groups of items on which there was substantial agreement amongst respondents on the ratings of importance. These were as follows:

- A group of items referring to personal development of the child received ratings of great importance with very high unanimity.
- A diverse group of items relating primarily to social development of the child was described as having large importance (that is, between great and medium) and high unanimity.
- A group of items relating to practical skills was described as having moderate importance and medium unanimity.

Although some of the items included in the above groups differed somewhat from those included in the corresponding scales in the New South Wales study, the overall pattern of results was very similar

indeed. Moreover, the pattern is very similar to that described by Mason (1979) in her review of a range of studies on community expectations of education.

In summary, the public at large list the teaching of basic skills as a prime objective for schools. They also emphasise personal and social development of pupils, training in practical skills and then cultural interests in that order. For goals lower in the order there is less consensus among respondents.

5.4 The Importance of Other Goals

Not included in the above five scales were nine items of a diverse nature. They were retained in the questionnaire because they were of topical interest. Some related to goals where the role of the school is not clearly recognised or where some controversy exists about the role of the school. Others related to traditional ideas and values and still others to areas where school curricula are changing to accommodate changing social patterns. It was considered that some index of public opinion on each of these items would be most valuable although results of surveys in the other two States indicated that considerable difference of opinion was likely on some of the items. The items are discussed below simply in the order in which they appeared on the questionnaire.

5.4.1. Competition

This item (D11) read "Encouraging students to compete with each other". The item had been asked in all three States and the results are summarised in Table 5.1.

TABLE 5.1 Ratings of Importance of Encouraging Students to Compete with Each Other for Three States

State	Sample size	% of sample expressing an opinion	% of respondents rating		
			Great	Moderate	Little or None
N.S.W.	1334	97.1	35.3	33.6	31.1
Qld.	948	99.0	43.5	37.6	18.9
S.A.	1183	96.4	35.2	41.1	23.7

Respondents were divided on the importance of competition in schools although this was favoured most by those in the Queensland sample. There was a tendency for competition to be favoured more by older people rather than by younger ones; by males more than by females (although the differences here were relatively small); and by those with lower levels of education rather than by those with more than four years of secondary education.

5.4.2. Understanding technology

In the complex social fabric of present day society, it would be difficult to pinpoint the most influential agent of change. Nevertheless, in any debate of such a question the influence of modern technology would receive most serious consideration. Few would deny, for example, the impact that electronic media and computers have had on our daily lives. To what extent should we endeavour to teach "an understanding of modern technology" (Item D17)?

Of the interviewees in New South Wales, five per cent did not express an opinion. Of those who did, 48 per cent rated this of great importance and a further 44 per cent rated it as moderately important. While these figures fall well short of the ratings of importance of teaching basic skills (93 per cent rated "teaching fundamentals like reading, writing and arithmetic" as of great importance), they nevertheless indicate strong support for such material to be included in school curricula. The Queensland data showed a very similar pattern and this question had not been asked in South Australia.

5.4.3. Religious education

Interviewees in all three States had been asked to assess the importance of teaching religious education in schools (Item D19 in the New South Wales instrument). Not surprisingly, the public were divided in their opinions on this question. While such a goal is a tenet for some non-government schools, it remains as an uneasy dilemma within government schools. As might be anticipated, this goal tended to be given greater importance by older people rather than younger, by those with lower levels of education than by those with higher and, to some extent, by females more than by males. Some inter-State differences were evident and the results are presented in Table 5.2 without any attempt at further interpretation.

TABLE 5.2 Ratings of Importance of Teaching Religious Education in Schools for Three States

State	Sample size	% of sample expressing an opinion	% of respondents rating		
			Great	Moderate	Little or None
N.S.W.	1334	97.8	26.2	34.7	39.1
Qld.	948	98.1	32.3	40.6	27.1
S.A.	1183	97.0	26.9	35.9	37.2

5.4.4. Conservation

A number of agencies have undertaken the responsibility of educating people in the need to appreciate the natural environment and to practise conservation in relation to a number of natural resources. This broadly worded question asked interviewees to rate the importance for the school to provide "an understanding of animal and plant life and conservation" (Item D20). (The wording varied slightly in the other two States).

This goal for schools received moderately strong support in all three States but most support from the South Australian sample. The results are summarised in Table 5.3.

TABLE 5.3

Ratings of Importance of Teaching an Understanding (Appreciation) of Animal and Plant Life and Conservation for Three States

State	Sample size	% of sample expressing an opinion	% of respondents rating		
			Great	Moderate	Little or None
N.S.W.	1334	98.4	49.8	41.1	9.1
Qld.	948	98.0	52.7	38.1	9.1
S.A.	1183	97.4	63.8	32.0	4.2

5.4.5. Mass media

To what extent should schools teach about the mass media? Should students be made aware of bias in reporting, of selective reporting, of monopolies in media ownership and so on? Is this a feasible task for schools or will such teaching inevitably be coloured by viewpoints held by teachers? Of course the question asked in the survey did not raise implications of this kind but simply asked interviewees what importance they would attribute to teaching about media in schools (Item D.24).

Over four per cent of interviewees gave a "don't know" response and of those who expressed an opinion, 30 per cent rated this goal of great importance. A further 50 per cent considered it of moderate importance, while the remaining 20 per cent assigned it little or no importance. The Queensland data were very similar to this, while the question had been omitted in the South Australian survey.

In summary, teaching about the mass media ranked below all but one other goal in the number of people rating it of great importance. Nevertheless, 80 per cent of those responding rated it as at least

moderately important. Interestingly enough, ratings given were not related to age, education, sex or occupation of respondents.

5.4.6. Student discipline

The survey instrument used in the Queensland study had asked a very precise question about the use of corporal punishment. About 16 per cent of the sample had rated this as of great importance but a further 40 per cent said it was moderately important. In the South Australian study, the question was reworded to read "enforcing student discipline". With the question worded in this way, a high 78.5 per cent of respondents said this was of great importance and less than three per cent rated it of little or no importance.

When the instrument was revised for use in New South Wales, an attempt was made to reword this item so it would fall between these two extremes - that is, the narrow "corporal punishment" of the Queensland instrument and the very general form of the question used in South Australia. The item in the New South Wales survey read "enforcing student discipline by using some form of punishment" (Item D29). With the item worded in this way, there was still a fairly strong response in favour. Thus, of the 99 per cent who expressed an opinion, 43 per cent thought this was of great importance, a further 36 per cent said it was moderately important and the remaining 21 per cent assigned it little or no importance. There was some tendency for older people and for those with lower levels of education to favour this goal more strongly but these relationships were not very strong.

5.4.7. Wearing school uniforms

Whether or not students should be required to wear school uniforms was also posed as an item in this part of the questionnaire (Item D30). While it might be argued that this question has little ultimate educational impact, it is a topic of interest to students, to parents and to school administrators. How often has this very question been debated by students at school or by parents at a local Parents and Citizens' Association meeting? The contrast between our high schools and those in the United States on this issue is striking to even the casual observer. So what opinions are held by the public at large on this question?

This question had been posed in all three States and, although the Queensland instrument used a slightly stronger form of wording ("insisting" as compared with "requiring"), inter-State comparisons are warranted. The results are summarised in Table 5.4.

TABLE 5.4

Ratings of Importance of Requiring (Insisting that) Students Wear School Uniforms for Three States

State	Sample size	% of sample expressing an opinion	% of respondents rating		
			Great	Moderate	Little or None
N.S.W.	1334	99.0	46.0	27.9	26.1
Qld.	948	99.0	32.7	30.2	37.2
S.A.	1183	97.9	45.7	21.9	32.4

Overall, a solid majority of respondents in all three States favoured the wearing of school uniforms. Thus in New South Wales about 74 per cent of respondents rated the wearing of the uniform as at least moderately important. However, a surprising result for this question was that the wearing of uniforms received most support in New South Wales and least support in Queensland. This finding seems to be against the trend of results on other questions where Queenslanders have appeared to be more conservative. However, a possible interpretation here is that the stronger form of wording ("insisting on wearing the school uniform") used in the Queensland instrument may have been sufficient to explain the observed difference.

In all three States, support for the wearing of school uniforms was favoured more by females than by males, by older people rather than younger, and by those with lower levels of schooling than by those with higher.

5.4.8. Involvement in policy making

Recent years have witnessed several attempts to decentralise the control and administration of schools in this country and to involve the local community in some aspects of educational decision-making. Nevertheless, as compared with Britain or the United States which countries have greatly influenced our policies on schooling, Australian States retain highly centralised systems of education. In view of this, the continuing debate on the role of local communities in relation to their schools and on the pros and cons of their involvement in policy decisions is not surprising.

Two questions were asked about the importance of involving students (Item D32) and the local community (Item D33) in school policy making. The results are summarised in Table 5.5.

TABLE 5.5

Ratings of the Importance of Involving Students and the Local Community in School Policy Making

Students				Local Community			
% of interviewees giving an opinion	% of respondents who rate			% of interviewees giving an opinion	% of respondents who rate		
	Great	Moderate	Little or None		Great	Moderate	Little or None
96.2	37.0	41.9	21.0	98.1	48.7	36.4	14.9

It would be difficult to infer too much from these results because the word "involvement" is very broad. Nevertheless there was a fairly solid majority of opinion that involvement by the community and by students in school policy making was at least moderately important. Rather stronger support was given to the involvement of the local community than was given to the involvement of students. Just under one-half of the respondents rated the involvement of the local community as of great importance.

Similar questions had been posed in the Queensland study but not in the South Australian one. The Queensland sample yielded a similar pattern of results for the question on student involvement although the support was not quite as strong as in New South Wales. The second question asked in Queensland used "parents" in place of "the local community". The overall pattern was similar to that in New South Wales although again the support was not quite as strong.

Support for community involvement in school policy making was not strongly related to other variables, although there was a tendency for the proposal to receive more support from females than from males.

Mention might be made here of one survey which asked more specific questions about involvement in school decision making. The survey was conducted by the Pennant Hills High School Parents and Citizens Association (1974) and sought opinions of teachers, parents and students in Grades 10, 11 and 12. Each group was asked to give an opinion on the role that teachers, parents, prefects and the Student Council should have in decision-making about the running of the school. Three options were given - direct involvement, advisory only and no involvement. All groups of respondents did not favour direct involvement for parents but majorities in each group advocated an advisory only role for parents. For example, of the 615 completed parent questionnaires, only 13 per cent favoured direct involvement for parents in school decision-making. Somewhat stronger support (36 per cent of parents and 26 per cent of teachers) was given to a role of direct involvement for the Student Council but a majority still favoured an advisory only role here as well.

5.5 Summary

This Chapter has examined the importance attributed to a range of goals for schools by members of the public. Inevitably the opinions are fairly broad and no attempt has been made, for example, to separate goals of primary schools from those of secondary schools. Also, unlike the surveys in the other two States, the results have been reported for five clusters of goals forming scales rather than for each of the 33 goal statements separately. However, nine items not included in the five scales have been considered separately.

The findings parallel very closely those of other studies seeking public, parent or community opinions on the role of schools. The teaching of basic skills of literacy and numeracy were given most prominence and there was high agreement on their importance. Goals related to personal development of students ranked next. This cluster included items such as "developing a desire to learn more throughout life", "developing the ability to think critically", "helping students with personal problems", and "developing interests to enable students to use leisure time beneficially". Also given considerable prominence was the set of items labelled social competence. Some items included here were "developing ability to get along with others", "helping students understand the rights and duties of citizenship", "teaching about government, politics and voting procedures", "teaching about social problems such as alcohol and drugs", and "teaching sex education". As noted earlier, this scale was fairly closely related to the two remaining scales - practical skills and cultural interests. Included under practical skills were items such as "teaching wise buying habits", "teaching homemaking and handyman skills" and "providing driver education". Cultural interests included "developing interest in art, literature, music, drama" and "teaching creative and imaginative writing". Although the latter two clusters of items received lower mean ratings, they were still rated on average as above moderately important goals for schools. Most spread of opinion on the ratings of importance occurred for cultural interests and practical skills.

Ratings of importance on nine other goals were also considered in the chapter but they are not summarised here because of their disparate nature.

CHAPTER 6

HOW SUCCESSFUL ARE SCHOOLS?

6.1 Ratings of Success for Clusters of Goals

As indicated in 5.1, interviewees were asked to rate each of the 33 items in Part D of the questionnaire on two separate scales. Findings for the first of these, ratings of importance of the items, were considered in Chapter 5. The present chapter considers the second rating, that of the success of schools in achieving the goals.

For 24 of the 33 items, results are presented again within the five major clusters or scales of items. Reliabilities for the five scales for ratings of success were discussed in Chapter 2.

How successful, then, are schools perceived to be in achieving goals related to

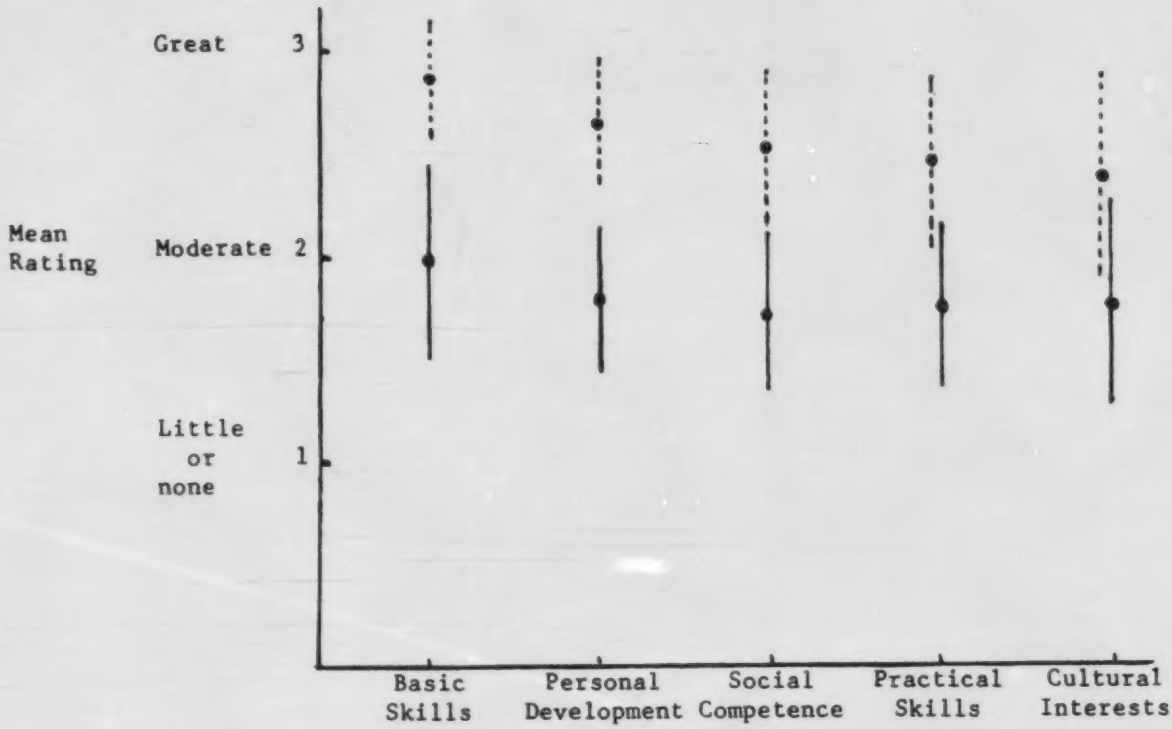
- Basic skills
- Personal development
- Social competence
- Practical skills
- Cultural interests?

As in Chapter 5, the findings here are presented graphically and show, for each scale, the mean and the standard deviation of responses. To facilitate comparisons, Figure 6.1 includes the ratings for importance (shown previously in Figure 5.1) as well as those for success.

For all five scales, the ratings of success lagged well behind the ratings of importance. The scale receiving the highest rating was basic skills where the mean was marginally below the "moderate" score. All other means fell in the upper half of the range between "moderate" and "little or none". Although basic skills received the highest rating on success, it also showed the greatest difference between the ratings for importance and those for success. Least difference between the two ratings occurred for cultural interests.

For the ratings of importance, there were considerable differences in the spreads of opinion on different scales with most consensus being achieved for the ratings of importance of basic skills. On the other hand, for the ratings of success, the spreads of opinion on the different scales tended to be similar. The two scales on which most difference of opinion occurred were basic skills and cultural interests.

Overall, then, the public rated the importance of all five sets of goals well above the success being shown by schools in achieving the goals. Although the scale related to basic skills received the highest rating on success, this rating was still well below the very high importance rating given to this scale. On the scales of cultural interests and practical skills, the two ratings of importance and success came closest together. Finally, it should be noted that the public were more divided in their ratings of the success of schools than they were on the importance ratings. This suggests the need to examine other variables which might be related to the ratings of success in an attempt to "explain" why differences of opinion occurred. The next section attempts to do this.



represents mean ± 1 standard deviation for ratings of importance

represents mean ± 1 standard deviation for ratings of success

Figure 6.1 Mean ratings for success of schools in achieving goals from five scales as compared with ratings for importance

6.2 Factors Related to Perceptions of Success

If people differed in their views about the success of schools in achieving different sets of goals, which people attributed most (or least) success to schools for particular goals? This section examines relationships between other variables and the ratings given to the success of schools.

As was indicated in 3.2, a key moderating variable in considering ratings of success of schools should be the knowledge that respondents claim to have about schools. Also in 3.2 (p.18), two variables related to claimed knowledge of schools were identified. Of these, level of schooling of the respondents was found to be strongly related to claimed knowledge about schools. The second variable - number of children at school - was also associated with claimed knowledge but the relationship was less strong. Although respondents with more children at school naturally claimed a greater knowledge of schools, a majority of those with no children at school still claimed to know "a lot" or "a fair amount" about schools. It was indicated previously that this was not surprising since many of these people had been recent school attenders themselves.

In view of the above, it was decided to examine the relationships between ratings of success and all three variables mentioned above, namely,

- claimed knowledge of schools
- level of schooling of respondents
- number of children at school.

The analyses to be reported here are essentially correlational and some warnings were issued in 2.6 about the difficulties of inferring cause-and-effect from relationships of this kind derived from survey results. An attempt was made to examine the relationships when all three variables (the predictors) were considered together. The analysis used for this purpose was a multiple regression analysis. It would also have been possible to analyse the data so that the ratings of success on all five sets of goals (the criteria) were considered together. However, it was decided that such an analysis (called canonical correlation) would be difficult to explain in a report of this kind and, in any case, it was found that the interpretation of findings would be fairly similar. Hence five separate analyses are presented, one for each rating of success scale.

One final problem associated with regression analysis needs to be explained. When the predictors are themselves inter-correlated, it is difficult to infer which of the predictors are most influential in "explaining" variation in the criterion. Consider the diagram in Figure 6.2 showing two predictors, P_1 and P_2, and a criterion variable C.

The area within C represents variation in criterion scores; the area within P_1 represents variation in scores on the first predictor and the area within P_2 similarly represents variation within scores on the second predictor. Now when any two of the variables are related (correlated), we can show an area of overlap to represent the amount of variation in one associated with variation in the other. (Actually the square of the correlation coefficient gives the proportion of shared variance.)

In Figure 6.2, P_1 and P_2 are correlated. They share an area $x + y$. P_1 is correlated with criterion C and the area of overlap is $a + x$. Similarly, P_2 predicts C and the area of overlap is $x + b$.

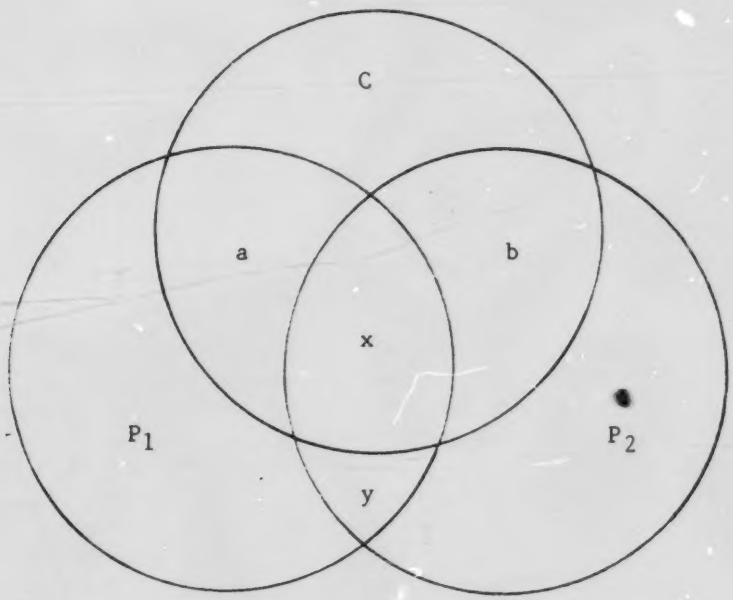


Figure 6.2 Diagram showing two predictor variables, P_1 and P_2 and a criterion variable C.

To make the example concrete, let

a = 10 per cent of the area of C;
b = 5 per cent of the area of C; and
x = 7 per cent of the area of C.

If we were to assess the contribution of P_1 above in predicting C, we would say it "explains" 17 per cent (a + x) of the variance in C. In a similar manner, P_2 above "explains" 12 per cent (b + x). If we then consider P_1 and P_2 together, 22 per cent (a + x + b) of C's variance is "explained". Now the crux of the problem of interpretation is "which predictor should take credit for the area x?"

One method of analysis in effect says P_1 makes the larger contribution (17 per cent) and then P_2 adds a further 5 per cent. A second method asks the question "how much can each predictor contribute over and above the contribution of the other?" A third possibility is to set out separately each of the areas a, b and x. Then area a represents the unique contribution of P_1; area b represents the unique contribution of P_2; and area x represents a conjoint contribution of P_1 and P_2. This third method - known technically as commonality analysis - is the one to be used and reported here. It is a fairly conservative method in that, should x be much larger than a and b, we can say very little about the relative contributions of P_1 and P_2. In the analyses reported below, three predictors were used, not two, but similar principles apply.

6.2.1 Success in basic skills

In this analysis, ratings of success in teaching basic skills formed the criterion variable. The three variables used as predictors were

- claimed knowledge of schools
- level of schooling of respondents
- number of children at school.

Knowledge of schools was not significantly related to this criterion but the contribution of the other two predictors did reach statistical significance. People with more children at school rated schools as more successful in teaching basic skills but the relationship was not a strong one and only 1.2 per cent of the variance in success ratings was associated with this predictor. Similarly, those with lower levels of schooling rated schools as more successful in teaching basic skills than those with high levels of schooling. Again, the relationship was a weak one with only 0.5 per cent of variance "explained". These two predictors in combination added little more (0.1 per cent).

In summary, although statistically significant relationships were found between two of the predictors and this criterion, these predictors "explained" only a small amount of the variation in ratings of success in teaching basic skills.

6.2.2 Success in personal development

With ratings of success in achieving the set of goals on personal development of students being used as the criterion variable, the same three predictors were used. Once again, knowledge of schools did not contribute significantly. Level of schooling of respondents alone accounted for 2.3 per cent of the variance in the criterion. The direction was such

that higher ratings of success were given by people with lower levels of schooling themselves. Number of children at school was associated with a further 2.0 per cent of variance in ratings of success. Both of the variables in combination added a further 0.6 per cent. Thus once again the relationships were not very strong with only about 5 per cent of criterion variance accounted for by these two predictors.

6.2.3 Success in social competence

The third scale to be used as the criterion measure comprised social competence. A similar procedure for analysis was followed and the same two predictor variables - level of schooling and number of children at school - contributed significantly. On this occasion, each contributed about 1.9 per cent of variance in success ratings and a further 0.4 per cent was associated with both variables in combination. Directions were as before. That is, higher ratings tended to be given by those respondents with lower levels of schooling and by those with more children at school.

6.2.4 Success in practical skills

With the fourth scale - success in teaching practical skills - used as the criterion, significant contributions to the prediction came from level of schooling and knowledge of schools. No significant relationship was found for the third variable, number of children at school.

The pattern of results on this occasion was rather different. By itself, level of schooling contributed 3.1 per cent of the "explained" variance and, in combination with claimed knowledge of schools, a further 1.2 per cent. The unique contribution of knowledge of schools was only 0.5 per cent. Higher ratings of success were associated with lower levels of schooling and with less knowledge of schools.

6.2.5 Success in cultural interests

Finally, the ratings of success on the cultural interests scale formed the criterion measure. On this occasion, claimed knowledge of schools did not predict significantly. Of the other two predictors, number of children at school was by itself associated with 2.1 per cent of criterion variance, level of schooling alone with 1.5 per cent and the two in combination with a further 0.5 per cent. The directions of the relationships were as before.

What do all of the above results mean in practical terms? It had been noted in 6.1 that considerable spread of opinion existed on the ratings of success for schools in achieving the sets of goals. Therefore it was important to ask which people tended to give higher ratings. For example, would people with closer associations with schools, or those who claimed more knowledge of schools, give the higher ratings of success?

The results suggest the following conclusions:

(a) Ratings of success were related to other variables and, in particular, to level of schooling of respondents which emerged in all five analyses. Number of children at school was also related to ratings of success in four of the five analyses. On only one occasion was there a significant relationship between the claimed knowledge of schools and the success ratings.

(b) All of the relationships were fairly weak ones. On no occasion was more than five per cent of criterion variance associated with the set of predictor variables. (Of course, it is rare to find very high proportions of variance "explained" in educational research. For example, we select students for tertiary entrance on the basis of scores on the Higher School Certificate, the best predictor which can be found of success in later studies. But even on this fairly major policy decision, only a little over 30 per cent of the variance in achievement scores in tertiary courses is associated with scores on the predictor).

(c) Allowing that the judgment people made about the success of schools in achieving various goals did depend, at least to some extent, on their association with schools, how did this influence their judgment? In all five analyses, people with longer experience of schools from their own schooling tended to give lower ratings of success. On the other hand, people with more experience of schools by virtue of having more children at school tended to give higher ratings of success. One could speculate about reasons for these relationships but such speculation would need to go well beyond the data of the present survey. What was clear was that respondents rated the importance of sets of goals above the success of schools in achieving those goals. The ratings of success did not depend on the amount of knowledge people claimed to have of schools; it did depend to a minor degree on the extent and kind of contact people had with schools.

6.3 Comparisons with Other States

The studies from Queensland and South Australia also found that ratings of the success of schools in achieving particular goals lagged behind the corresponding ratings of importance. As noted in the Queensland report (Botsman and Browne, 1977, p.63), this might be expected since one represents a perceived "ideal" situation and the other a perceived "real" situation.

In both the Queensland and South Australian reports, particular attention was given to the size of the discrepancy between the importance and success ratings. For example, the Queensland report defined and calculated a "dissonance rating" to reflect such discrepancies. Similarly, the South Australian report described a "discord analysis" which included a difference between the ratings of importance and success. Both reports produced scores for the single items and then formed clusters of items showing similar dissonance or discord characteristics. However, items grouped together on this basis were often conceptually very different. For example, items showing high dissonance in the Queensland study included teaching alcohol education, teaching drug education, providing counselling services, teaching students to write a business letter and teaching wise buying habits. Similarly, the South Australian report identified a group of items on which respondents agreed that importance rated well above achievement of success (called inadequate performance items). This group included developing a desire to learn more throughout life, teaching a sense of right and wrong, teaching how to think critically and to reason, teaching about social problems, and so on. Hence the South Australian report argued it was difficult to make general statements about a set of items (for example, on personal development) and that items needed to be treated individually.

The present study has, of course, grouped the items conceptually in the first place rather than trying to group items on the basis of the research results. The data in Chapter 2 on the internal consistency of the five scales so formed suggested that this was just as valid for ratings of success as it was for ratings of importance. However, one consequence of this approach is that comparisons of the discrepancies between importance and success ratings are difficult to make across States. As indicated in Figure 6.1, most discrepancy occurred for the items on basic skills and personal development. Least discrepancy occurred for items on cultural interests and practical skills. This way of looking at the data has the advantage of simplicity and should permit some general statements about discord or dissonance between perceived ideal and real situations. However, readers are warned that the addition of items into a scale can mask unexpected findings on particular items.

In spite of this, an examination of results for individual items in the Queensland and South Australian studies lends support to the more general conclusions drawn in the present study. Some of the items which appear to cloud the picture in the reports from the other two States are those excluded from the five scales in the New South Wales study. Results for the ratings of success for these additional items are considered next.

6.4 Ratings of Success for Other Goals

The ratings of importance of nine items of a diverse nature not included in the five scales were considered in 5.4. The present section considers the corresponding ratings of success of schools on these items and gives particular attention to discrepancies between importance and success ratings.

6.4.1 Competition

It was noted in 5.4.1 that opinions were divided on the importance of "encouraging students to compete with each other". This was one item on which the success ratings were slightly higher than those for importance. About 91 per cent of respondents gave an opinion on the success of schools in encouraging competition. Only 17 per cent rated the success as little or none as compared with 31 per cent (Table 5.1) who rated the importance in this category. The Queensland study reported similarly as this was one of two items classified as having "reverse dissonance". It was classified in the South Australian report as an item of satisfactory performance - that is, one in which there was consensus that importance and achievement were comparable. In summary, competition was not perceived as highly important and schools were seen as encouraging at least as much competition as was considered desirable.

6.4.2 Understanding technology

A relatively high 14 per cent of interviewees had no opinion on the success of schools in teaching an understanding of modern technology. Of those who expressed an opinion, only 10 per cent rated the success as great, a further 54 per cent chose the category of moderately successful, and the remaining 36 per cent thought schools achieved little or no success. These ratings fall well short of the importance ratings where the percentages in the three categories were 48, 44 and eight respectively (5.4.2). A similar result was found in the Queensland study where, on the basis of the success ratings, this item was classified as one of "marginal achievement" for schools (Botsman and Browne, 1977, p. 63).

6.4.3 Religious education

The division of opinion on the importance of teaching religious education was indicated in 5.4.3. The item had been given higher ratings of importance in Queensland than in the other two States. However, it received low success ratings in the Queensland study, and was identified as an item of low achievement. In the South Australian study, this item was classified as of "controversial importance" since there was much less consensus about its importance than there was about its achievement. A high 70 per cent of those expressing an opinion in that State had rated the success at teaching religious education as little or none. The corresponding figure for the New South Wales sample was 57 per cent while in Queensland only about 42 per cent gave this rating.

In New South Wales, then, people were divided in their opinions about the importance of teaching religious education but a majority of respondents (more than 90 per cent expressed an opinion) rated schools as having little or no success on this goal.

6.4.4 Conservation

It was noted earlier (5.4.4) that the goal of providing an understanding of animal and plant life and conservation had received moderately strong support in Queensland and New South Wales and stronger support in South Australia. Based on the results of the ratings of success, the Queensland report was able to classify this item as one of marginal achievement. However, in South Australia, it was identified as one of the 10 items of satisfactory performance.

In New South Wales, although the ratings of success on this item fell short of those for importance, they did indicate fairly satisfactory achievement. Of those expressing an opinion, 18, 52 and 30 per cent rated the success as great, moderate, and little or none respectively. The corresponding figures in South Australia were 23, 54 and 23 respectively.

6.4.5 Mass media

Although teaching about the mass media ranked low in ratings of importance as compared with other items, 80 per cent of respondents had still regarded it as at least moderately important. For the ratings of success, 15 per cent recorded a "don't know" response. Of those expressing an opinion, 8 per cent opted for the category great, a further 49 per cent chose the category of moderate success but a fairly high 43 per cent indicated little or no success in achieving this goal. In spite of the relatively low importance assigned to this goal, these figures indicate that the public considered that schools had a fairly low degree of success in achieving this goal. The Queensland study reported similarly and classified the item as one of low achievement although there was a lack of consensus in the ratings given.

6.4.6 Student discipline

Of the 91 per cent of interviewees who expressed an opinion, only 11 per cent rated the enforcing of student discipline by using some form of punishment as greatly successful. This contrasts with 43 per cent who rated the item of great importance. At the other end of the scale, 44 per cent

rated the school as having little or no success while only 21 per cent had assigned the item little or no importance. Hence, although there was considerable spread of opinion on the importance of this goal, the figures indicate a low level of success in achievement of the goal.

The corresponding item in the Queensland study had been worded "using corporal punishment". The report classified this item as one of "deficit achievement", that is, an item on which the majority of respondents rated schools as achieving little or no success. The item worded "enforcing student discipline" in the South Australian study was also identified as one of "inadequate performance".

6.4.7 Wearing school uniforms

In the New South Wales sample, 74 per cent had rated the wearing of school uniforms as of great or moderate importance. Respondents were in fairly high agreement that schools achieved this goal as 83 per cent of those giving an opinion rated the success as great or moderate. The item fared similarly in the other two States. The Queensland study described the item as one of "reverse dissonance" (one in which achievement outweighed importance in the ratings) while the South Australian study included the item as one of those with satisfactory performance.

6.4.8 Involvement in policy making

It was noted in 5.4.8 that a solid majority of respondents favoured involvement by the community and by students in school policy making. It was also indicated that the general nature of the two questions made it difficult to infer too much from the results. Nevertheless, the ratings for the success of schools in achieving community and student involvement in policy making fell well short of the importance ratings. Thus, whereas 49 per cent of respondents rated community involvement of <u>great</u> importance, only 12 per cent thought schools had achieved a <u>great</u> degree of success in this.

At the other end of the scale, only 15 per cent thought community involvement was of little or no importance, but 44 per cent considered little or no success had been achieved.

The pattern of responses for ratings of success of student involvement was similar to that for community involvement although a higher proportion of "don't know" responses was recorded for the former (16.9 as compared with 10.3 per cent). However, since student involvement was given somewhat less importance than community involvement (see 5.4.8), the discrepancy between ratings of importance and those of success was less pronounced for student involvement than it was for community involvement.

6.5 Summary

The ratings of how successful schools were perceived to be have been considered in this chapter. Attention has also been given to the discrepancies between ratings of importance and the ratings of success or achievement of schools. As for ratings of importance, 24 of the 33 items rated have been considered within five major clusters or scales of items. This has had the advantage of simplifying the large amount of data and of permitting some generalisations. We have argued the desirability of this approach. However,

the approach has had some disadvantages as well. In the first place, some of the generalisations may mask rather different patterns of results for particular items. Secondly, since the reports on the Queensland and South Australian studies grouped items according to their ratings rather than conceptually as we have done, inter-State comparisons are sometimes difficult to make.

The set of goals related to the teaching of basic skills received the highest mean rating of success. However, because this set of goals had received a very high mean rating for importance, the discrepancy between ratings of importance (or the ideal situation) and the ratings of success (or actual achievements) was still quite marked. Similarly, the set of goals related to personal development of students showed a considerable discrepancy between the two mean ratings. Least discrepancy occurred for the sets of goals related to cultural interests and practical skills.

The ratings of success or achievement of schools showed a greater spread of public opinion than those for the importance of sets of goals. Hence an attempt was made to "explain" different ratings in terms of different knowledge of schools claimed by respondents and by different amounts of contact with schools. In only one of the five scales did claimed knowledge of schools show a significant relationship with the ratings of success. However, the overall pattern of results indicated a tendency for higher success ratings to be given by people with more children at school and by people with lower levels of education themselves. Although the relationships were statistically significant, they were of relatively minor practical significance. In short, there was little evidence to indicate that people with more knowledge of, or contact with, schools rated their achievements very differently from others with less knowledge or contact.

Finally, the chapter examined briefly responses on the remaining nine items not included in the five scales.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

This report began by arguing a case for surveys of public opinion on the goals and achievements of schools. It was argued that policy makers have shown an increasing willingness, not only to heed public opinion, but also to encourage public debate on educational issues. There has also been increased demand for the education sector to be publicly accountable. Managers within the education system have difficulty in meeting demands for such accountability unless the aspirations and views of the public are known.

It was also argued that such views can best be obtained through systematic surveys. Otherwise, articulate pressure groups can appear to speak for the public at large. Of course, on many issues, the public will hold a range of viewpoints. In such cases, it is necessary to try to understand different views in terms of other characteristics of the people holding the views. This is a task for research.

It was not argued that policy-makers should set future policies in line with public thinking. Hopefully educational policies are underpinned with a blend of insight, research knowledge, awareness of future trends, past experience and conventional wisdom. It is unrealistic to expect the public, relying on restricted channels of communication, to be able to judge decisions on such a broad base of criteria. Nevertheless, the tax paying public and school communities have shown a desire to be informed about, if not directly involved in, policy making. If current educational policies or practices do not accord with public opinions, there may be a need for more effective communication of the rationale for particular decisions.

The present survey of public opinions about schools in New South Wales has followed fairly closely similar studies in Queensland and in South Australia. The data have been drawn from 1341 interviews conducted in Sydney and in six country towns. A number of conclusions have been drawn from the data and presented within each chapter. Moreover, summaries have also been presented at the end of most chapters. For this reason, no attempt will be made to repeat all of the conclusions in this chapter. Rather, only those conclusions which lead to recommendations will be considered here.

Had this report been prepared for a particular group of policy-makers or for a particular agency, the recommendations would have been far more specific. As it is, the recommendations have implications for policy-makers at a number of levels and, as a consequence, they tend to be stated fairly generally. We trust this does not detract from their use.

7.2 Recommendations

Recommendations could have been grouped and ordered in several different ways. However, we have chosen to list them in an order corresponding to the order in which the relevant conclusions occur in the report. We hope this will assist readers wishing to refer back to the more detailed discussion in preceding chapters.

7.2.1 Further research

In combination with the surveys in Queensland and South Australia, the present study has provided useful base-line data on what people think about schools. Future monitoring of public opinion should benefit from the existence of this initial comparative data.

R_1 Systematic surveys of public opinions of schools are recommended at regular intervals (say, every five or six years).

Future surveys should benefit from the experiences and the mistakes of the studies already conducted. For example,

R_2 Future surveys should be coordinated and conducted simultaneously in different States so that more valid interpretations can be given to inter-State differences.

R_3 The instrument used needs to be further refined. In particular, there is a need for better conceptualisation of the set of items in Part D.

R_4 The method of sampling used in the present study was fairly adequate and, with a few further refinements, could be employed again.

A useful additional benefit from the present study was the opportunity to involve a large number of students in a research exercise which gave them "hands-on" experience related (in most cases) to their coursework.

R_5 The use of students for interviewing is recommended. However, it is also recommended that the number of interviews required of them be restricted (say 3 to 5) and that the work be related to their coursework.

7.2.2 Communication

The survey indicated that a high proportion of people were not well informed about schools. Hence

R_6 It is recommended that policy makers seek more effective ways of communicating with the public.

Of the different sources of information about schools, mass media were not perceived as a very significant source. However, unlike other sources of information, mass media had the advantage of being used uniformly across different sub-groups.

R_7 It is recommended that greater use be made of mass media in communicating information about schools and reasons for policy decisions in education.

School children formed a very important source of information about schools for all sub-groups considered.

R_8 Those anxious to improve communication about schools should consider the implications of children being an important source of information. Where it is desired to communicate to the public the rationale for major policy decisions, ways might be sought to ensure that, within the obvious limits of their level of understanding and maturity, children discuss and comprehend relevant issues.

7.2.3 The standing of schools

Overall, schools were fairly well regarded. Neither primary nor secondary students were perceived to work too hard but their work was seen by most as productive. Primary schools tended to be rated above secondary schools and the difference was greatest in New South Wales. However, independent secondary schools were held in very high regard by those who rated them.

R_9 Further research on the ethos or climate of schools is needed to explain the observed differences in ratings. Such research might assist understanding of enrolment trends across government and non-government sectors.

7.2.4 Role of secondary schools

The public were divided in their opinions about the emphasis given in secondary schools to preparation for higher education. However, there were strong indications that secondary schools certainly did not place too much emphasis on preparation for work.

R_{10} Further investigation of the existing and desired relationships between education and work is needed.

7.2.5 External examinations

Respondents in the New South Wales sample were strongly in favour of external examinations as at least part of the assessment at both Year 10 and Year 12 level.

R_{11} The policy of external examinations needs further review. It may be that some further changes are desirable or it may be that the rationale for present policies is not adequately understood.

7.2.6 Priorities in funding

Overall fairly strong support was expressed for any additional financial assistance to go to those sectors of education catering for most people (primary and secondary schools). Little support was evident for a reduction in funding.

R_{12} Decisions on funding need to be sensitive to the public view on the distribution of the benefits from such funding.

Figures were presented on the divided opinions of the public about the level of funding to the non-government sector.

R_{13} Figures on the opinions of the public about the level of funding to the non-government sector might be further monitored over time to assist policy reviews on this issue. The data in the present report provide a baseline for subsequent comparisons.

7.2.7 Quality of schools

Although a majority of respondents thought that children today received a better education than they had, the relatively high proportion who felt otherwise is a matter of concern. In particular, those who had greater experience of the system through their own education were the most critical. While most sociologists would probably predict this result, there is scope for further exploration of the finding.

R_{14} There is a need for further research to seek explanations of why people with more education are more critical of the system of schooling. Is it just that people with lower levels of education perceive children today having opportunities not afforded when they were of school age? Or are people with more experience of the system able to pinpoint weaknesses in the present system?

7.2.8 The importance of different goals

Highest priority was given to goals related to the teaching of basic skills. Goals related to personal development of students ranked next and other goals, although also ranked as important, received somewhat lower priorities.

R_{15} Those who plan curricula need to assess the goals and aims of school curricula against this background of public opinion. Where differences exist, there is need either for reassessment of curricular goals or for better communication.

7.2.9 The success of schools in achieving different goals

For all five major sets of goals, the public perceived school performance to lag behind the "ideal" ratings of importance. Although schools were rated as more successful in teaching basic skills than they were for other sets of goals, there was a marked discrepancy between the ratings of success and those of importance.

R_{16} Schools need to find adequate means to assess basic competencies of students and means of certifying the achievement of such competencies so that the certification is publicly recognised and esteemed.

R_{17} On the other hand, reporting the achievements of students needs to reflect the whole range of goals being pursued by the schools.

The questions asked in the instrument tended to be of two kinds. Some asked for a global or overall assessment of schools. The pattern of responses to these questions showed a fairly high level of satisfaction with the work and accomplishments of schools. A second set of questions sought opinions on quite specific issues relating to schools. Understandably, the public were prepared to indicate where they thought schools fell short of the ideal on these matters. Hence, based on the findings of the survey, we conclude that schools are considered generally to be doing a good job. However, specific criticisms point to the need to avoid complacency.

Finally, some readers may be interested in aspects of the data that have been neglected in this report. Inevitably we have been selective in the description of variables and in the examination of relationships among variables. However, we have retained the data in a fairly accessible form and we invite any readers interested in exploring other aspects of the data to write to us.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE/INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

CONFIDENTIAL

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY

AUSTRALIAN COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
NSW CHAPTER

CARD 1

SURVEY OF PUBLIC OPINIONS ABOUT SCHOOLS

POSTCODE [| | | |] 6 - 9

I am ..... and I am an interviewer for a survey into what people think about schools. The survey is being conducted by the Australian College of Education. The information you give us will be held in strictest confidence - I do not need to know your name and I will not record your address. The information will be used for statistical purposes only.

Our survey aims to look at your attitudes to what schools are doing and what you think they should be doing.

I will need to take up only about half an hour of your time.
(Show letter of introduction)

PART A

A1 HOW OLD WERE YOU ON YOUR LAST BIRTHDAY? .....(years) 10,11

A2 MALE... 1 FEMALE... 2 12

A3 IN WHICH COUNTRY WERE YOU BORN? *(wait)*

Australia	...1	*U.K. or Ireland*	...2	*USA or Canada*	...3
Italy	...4	*Greece*	...5	*Yugoslavia*	...6
Lebanon	...7	*Other Europe*	...8	*Asia*	...9

Other (please specify) 0 13

A4 WHAT LANGUAGE DO YOU MOSTLY SPEAK AT HOME? *(wait)*

English .... 1 *Other than English 2* 14

A5 IF BORN OUTSIDE AUSTRALIA

IN WHAT YEAR DID YOU ARRIVE IN AUSTRALIA? 15,16

A6 HOW MANY CHILDREN DO YOU HAVE? .....(number) 17

A7 IF CHILDREN

HOW MANY CHILDREN DO YOU HAVE AT SCHOOL? .....(number) 18

A8 IF CHILDREN AT SCHOOL

(a) HOW MANY OF YOUR CHILDREN ATTEND THESE KINDS OF SCHOOLS?

Numbers	Government	Catholic	Independent
PRE SCHOOL			
PRIMARY			
SECONDARY			

19-27

(b) IF CATHOLIC OR INDEPENDENT

WHY DO YOU SEND YOUR CHILD(REN) TO A (CATHOLIC) (INDEPENDENT) SCHOOL?

Religious reasons .... 1 *Better education 2*

Family Tradition .... 3 *Other (specify) 4* 28

A9 WHAT IS YOUR RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION? *(wait)*

Church of England .... 1 *Catholic 2*

Uniting Church .... 3 *Presbyterian 4*

Other Christian .... 5 *Non-Christian 6*

No Religion 7 29

A10 IN WHICH COUNTRY DID YOU HAVE MOST YEARS OF YOUR SCHOOLING? *(wait)*

Australia ..... 1 *Outside Australia 2* 30

A11 AT WHAT STAGE DID YOU FINISH SCHOOLING?

Before end of primary .... 1 *Finished primary ...2*

1 to 4 years secondary .... 3 *More than 4 years secondary ...4* 31

A12 HAVE YOU OBTAINED ANY QUALIFICATIONS SINCE LEAVING SCHOOL, OF ANY OF THESE TYPES - (may circle more than one)

Trade .... 1 *Technician .... 2* *Tertiary Diploma ...3*

University .... 4 *Other (specify) 5* 32

A13 DURING THE LAST WEEK, WAS YOUR HOUSEHOLD'S MAIN INCOME EARNER -

employed .... 1 *unemployed 2*

retired .... 3 *student 4* 33

A14 WHAT IS THAT PERSON'S (current) (usual) (former) OCCUPATION? *(wait)*

professional, grazier, wheat and sheep farmer 1

manager, self-employed shop proprietor, other farmer 2

clerical, Armed Services, Police 3

craftsman, foreman 4

shop assistant, process worker, driver 5

personal and domestic service worker, miner, farm worker, labourer 6

full-time student 7 34

PART B

B1 HOW MUCH DO YOU FEEL YOU KNOW ABOUT SCHOOLS?

nothing .... 1 *very little .... 2* *a fair amount 3*

a lot 4 35

B2 HOW MUCH INFORMATION ABOUT WHAT IS HAPPENING IN SCHOOLS DO YOU GET FROM: *(Show Card A)*

	None	*Very Little*	*Fair Amount*	*A Lot*	
school meetings or functions	1	2	3	4	36-44
school staff	1	2	3	4	
school newsletters	1	2	3	4	
voluntary workers	1	2	3	4	
school children	1	2	3	4	
friends, relatives	1	2	3	4	
local newspapers	1	2	3	4	
state newspapers	1	2	3	4	
radio or television	1	2	3	4	

B3 (a) STUDENTS ARE OFTEN GIVEN GRADES IN SCHOOL. SUPPOSE YOU HAD TO GRADE THE SCHOOLS THEMSELVES, HOW WOULD YOU GRADE THE PRIMARY SCHOOL YOU KNOW BEST?

Excellent .... 1 *Good .... 2* *Satisfactory 3*

Poor .... 4 *Very Poor .... 5* *Don't know 6* 45

(b) IS THAT SCHOOL

Government .... 1 *Catholic .... 2* *Independent 3* 46

(c) HOW DO YOU THINK IT COMPARES WITH OTHER (Government / Catholic / Independent) PRIMARY SCHOOLS?

Better .... 1 *About the same .... 2* *Worse 3*

Don't know 4 47

B4 THINKING OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS, DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS?

(a) PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILDREN ARE GIVEN TOO MUCH SCHOOL WORK TO DO THESE DAYS

Agree .... 1 *Disagree .... 2* *Don't know 3* 48

(b) MUCH OF WHAT SEEMS TO BE HAPPENING IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS THESE DAYS IS JUST "PLAYING ABOUT".

Agree .... 1 *Disagree .... 2* *Don't know 3* 49

B5 (a) NOW, HOW WOULD YOU RATE THE SECONDARY SCHOOL YOU KNOW BEST?

Excellent .... 1 *Good .... 2* *Satisfactory 3*

Poor .... 4 *Very Poor .... 5* *Don't know 6* 50

(b) IS THAT SCHOOL

Government .... 1 *Catholic .... 2* *Independent 3* 51

(c) HOW DO YOU THINK IT COMPARES WITH OTHER
(Government)
(Catholic) SCHOOLS?
(Independent)

Better .... 1 *About the same .... 2* *Worse 3*

Don't know 4 52

B6 THINKING OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS, DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS?

(a) SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS ARE MADE TO WORK TOO HARD THESE DAYS

Agree .... 1 *Disagree .... 2* *Don't know 3* 53

(b) MUCH OF WHAT IS HAPPENING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS THESE DAYS IS JUST A WASTE OF TIME FOR THE STUDENTS.

Agree .... 1 *Disagree .... 2* *Don't know 3* 54

(c) ALL STUDENTS TAKING THE SCHOOL CERTIFICATE AFTER GRADE 10 SHOULD SIT FOR AN EXTERNAL EXAM AS AT LEAST A PART OF THEIR ASSESSMENT.

Agree .... 1 *Disagree .... 2* *Don't know 3* 55

(d) ALL STUDENTS TAKING THE HIGHER SCHOOL CERTIFICATE AFTER GRADE 12 SHOULD SIT FOR AN EXTERNAL EXAM AS AT LEAST A PART OF THEIR ASSESSMENT.

Agree .... 1 *Disagree .... 2* *Don't know 3* 56

B7 SOME CHILDREN DO POORLY IN SCHOOL, AND MANY THINGS MAY BE THE CAUSE OF THIS. WHICH DO YOU THINK IS THE CHIEF CAUSE. *(Show Card B)*

Children .... 1 *Parents .... 2* *Teachers 3*

School system .... 4 *Society generally 5*

Other (specify) ..... 6 *Don't know 7* 57

B8 DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS?

(a) IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS, TOO MUCH EMPHASIS IS PLACED ON PREPARING STUDENTS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION.

Agree .... 1 *Disagree .... 2* *Don't know 3* 58

(b) IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS, TOO MUCH EMPHASIS IS PLACED ON PREPARING STUDENTS FOR JOBS.

Agree .... 1 *Disagree .... 2* *Don't know 3* 59

(c) CHILDREN TODAY GET A BETTER EDUCATION THAN YOU DID.

Agree.... 1 *Disagree .... 2* *Don't know 3* 60

B9 WHICH AREAS OF EDUCATION, IF ANY, DO YOU THINK SHOULD GET MORE MONEY FROM THE GOVERNMENT, IN ORDER OF PRIORITY?

(Show Card C)

(Enter 1 at first preference, 2 at second, 3 at third)

None	*Pre School*	*Primary*	*Second.*	*Tech.*	*Teacher Educ.*	*Other CAE*	*Univ.*	*No Opinion*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*

61-63

B10 WHICH AREAS OF EDUCATION, IF ANY, DO YOU THINK SHOULD GET LESS MONEY FROM THE GOVERNMENT, IN ORDER OF PRIORITY?

(Show Card C)

(Enter 1 at first preference, 2 at second, 3 at third)

None	*Pre School*	*Primary*	*Second.*	*Tech.*	*Teacher Educ.*	*Other CAE*	*Univ.*	*No Opinion*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*

64-66

B11 IN THE PAST, THERE HAS BEEN MUCH DEBATE ABOUT THE GOVERNMENT FUNDING OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS. WHAT IS YOUR VIEW ON THE PRESENT LEVEL OF GOVERNMENT FUNDING FOR PRIVATE SCHOOLS?

Too much .... 1 *About right .... 2* *Too little 3*

Don't know 4

67

PART C

C1 Thinking of schools generally, what things do you think they do particularly well?

(Record first three)

a.....

b.....

c.....

C2 What do you think are the main faults with the schools today?

(Record first three)

a.....

b.....

c.....

PART D

These questions are about what you think schools ought to do and how well they do it. For each item, would you rate how important it is and how successful schools are at doing it.

(Read the statement. Then ask "how important is that?".
Then ask "how successful are our schools?".
Then proceed to the next statement.)

(Circle two numbers for each question) *(Show Card D)* ITEM	IMPORTANCE				SUCCESS				Card 2
	Great	Moderate	Little or None	Don't know	Great	Moderate	Little or None	Don't Know	
D1. Giving students a good background of general knowledge	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	6,7
D2. Developing ability to get along with others	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	8,9
D3. Teaching students how to express themselves clearly when speaking and writing	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	10,11
D4. Developing a desire to learn more throughout life	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	11,12
D5. Teaching reading for enjoyment	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	13,14
D6. Helping students understand the right and duties of citizenship	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	15,16
D7. Developing interest in art, literature, music, drama	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	17,18
D8. Teaching a sense of right and wrong	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	19,20
D9. Developing the ability to think critically	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	21,22
D10. Teaching creative and imaginative writing	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	23,24
D11. Encouraging students to compete with each other	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	25,26

(Circle two numbers for each question) ITEM	IMPORTANCE Great	Moderate	Little or None	Don't know	SUCCESS Great	Moderate	Little or None	Don't Know	Card 2
D12. Teaching fundamentals like reading, writing and arithmetic	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	27,28
D13. Teaching wise buying habits	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	29,30
D14. Encouraging health and physical fitness	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	31,32
D15. Teaching about government, politics and voting procedures	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	33,34
D16. Teaching students to read well enough to understand a newspaper	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	35,36
D17. Teaching an understanding of modern technology	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	37,38
D18. Providing students with information and guidance for choosing a job or career	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	39,40
D19. Teaching religious education	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	41,42
D20. Providing an understanding of animal and plant life and conservation	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	43,44
D21. Teaching homemaking and handyman skills	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	45,46
D22. Helping students with personal problems	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	47,48
D23. Teaching about social problems such as alcohol and drugs	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	49,50
D24. Teaching about the mass media	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	51,52
D25. Teaching sex education	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	53,54
D26. Developing interests to enable students to use leisure time beneficially	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	55,56

(Circle two numbers for each question)	IMPORTANCE	SUCCESS	Card 2
ITEM	Great 1 Moderate 2 Little or None 3 Don't Know 4	Great 1 Moderate 2 Little or None 3 Don't Know 4	
D27. Providing driver education	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	57,58
D28. Developing an understanding of family life	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	59,60
D29. Enforcing student discipline by using some form of punishment	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	61,62
D30. Requiring students to wear school uniforms	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	63,64
D31. Providing specialist help for students with learning problems	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	65,66
D32. Involving students in school policy making	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	67, 68
D33. Involving parents and the local community in school policy making.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	69,70

Thank you very much for giving up so much of your time..
We appreciate your co-operation in answering our questions.

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APPENDIX B

LISTS OF STAFF AND STUDENTS PARTICIPATING

STAFF MEMBERS PARTICIPATING IN C.A.E. SURVEY FROM ALL COLLEGES

CATHOLIC TEACHERS' COLLEGE, SYDNEY

Mr W.F. Price

KU-RING-GAI COLLEGE OF ADVANCED EDUCATION

Mr G. Browne
Mr L. Brady

MT. ST. MARY COLLEGE

Mr Paul Corkeron

NEPEAN COLLEGE OF ADVANCED EDUCATION

Mr Monir Khamis

SYDNEY TEACHERS' COLLEGE

Mr Reg Philps
Ms D. Butland
Ms V. Martin
Mrs M. Rogers
Mr D. Anderson
Mr J. Piechocki

ARMIDALE COLLEGE OF ADVANCED EDUCATION

Mr Stan Bailey

MITCHELL COLLEGE OF ADVANCED EDUCATION

Mr D.J. Stewart

GOULBURN COLLEGE OF ADVANCED EDUCATION

Dr Rodney Francis
Dr Raymond Meyer

NEWCASTLE COLLEGE OF ADVANCED EDUCATION

Mrs. Faith Trent
Dr J. Miles
Mr G. Morgan

RIVERINA COLLEGE OF ADVANCED EDUCATION

Mr John Bailey
Mr Eric Leape

WOLLONGONG INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

Mr Bevan Ferguson
Dr K. Davies
Mr W. Dixon
Mr B. Murray
Mr B. Waters
Mr V. Rees
Mr B. Rogers
Mr R. Stevenson
Miss J. Wright
Mr M. Harris

Students Participating from Armidale C.A.E. (N=30)

Anscombe, Libby
Armstrong, Elizabeth
Armsworth, Robyn
Badham, Lyn
Beaumont, Kayleen
Berryman, Fiona
Cameron, Meg
Colgan, Katie
Dunlop, Carolyn
Fairhall, Amanda
Featherstone, Alison
Fernance, Leigh
Grant, David
Groom, Jackie
Hanlan, Deborah
Hodges, Sue-Ellen
Lewis, Penny
Miller, James
Morgan, Les
North, Roz
Perrott, Christine
Silvester, Ken
Sinclair, Karen
Shore, Gayie
Small, Julie
Smith, Joanne
Stanford, Lyn
Tibbs, Sue
Watt, Sue
Young, Carleen

Students Participating from Catholic Teachers' College, Sydney. (N=10)

Barrett, Margaret
Bowler, Tracey
Finneran, Gayle
Gallagher, Mary
Ippolito, Maria
Lennon, Jenny
Merlino, Dorina
Mulqueeney, Judy
Pollard, Mary
Tremayne, Jenny

Students Participating from Goulburn C.A.E. (N=35)

Alchin, Ian
Bailey, Peter
Banks, Phil
Barby, Michael
Bear, Marlene
Boyd, Neville
Bray, Greg
Bridge, Warren
Clark, John
Clements, John
Coppin, Linda
Hales, David
Hart, Julie
Hector, Wendy
Lang, Kerrie
Marks, Kirk
Marvell, Steven
McEwan, Tania
McFarland, John
Mead, Rodney
Nicholls, Stephen
Pickett, Peter
Piper, Lynette
Roberts, Marion
Roche, Noreen
Ross, Ian
Scott, Frank
Searle, Roger
Shipton, Glen
Siebel, Gwilym
Stafford, Janette
Taverner, Ray
Van Helden, Maureen
Whittaker, Dailene
Willis, Neal

Students Participating from Kuring-gai C.A.E. (N=53)

Allison, Rosemary
Alrich, Tania
Askew, Debbie
Batten, Beverly
Charleston, Ros
Cheng, Chris
Colburn, Margaret
Cook, Margaret
Court, Dianne
Craig, Ian
Dixson, Janet
Evans, Debbie
Green, Paula
Hall, Jenny
Harris, Alison
Hedley, Kerry
Himmelhoch, Anne
Hollomon, Joanne
Hopper, Kathy
Hutchings, Carolyn
Jedlin, Landy
Jennings, Lyndal
Jones, Tim
Lancaster, Robert
Lansen, Ann
Linklater, Pat
Manning, Kerry
Mar, Leanne
Matthew, Margaret
McAtamney, Jim
McDonald, Fiona
McDonald, Wendy
McLean, Peta
McLeavy, Robyn
Milthorpe, Avril
O'Brien, Sue
Proude, Elizabeth
Rea, Diana
Robertson, Carolyn
Robertson, Helen
Robson, Vivian
Rodda, Mary
Ruytenberg, Elizabeth
Sheldon, Peter
Spencer, Margaret
Sutcliff, Sara
Upton, Lisette
Wallace, Peter
White, Rowe
Whitefield, Phillip
Williams, Janette
Williams, Phillipa
Wonders, Jackie

Students Participating from Macquarie University. (N=47)

Best, Dianne
Bosanquet, Ross
Busby, Andrew
Carratt, David
Cowan, Margaret
Davidson, Jeffrey
De Andrade, Mary
Dolan, Phillip
Evans, Mark
Evans, Rod
Fisher, Julie
Foletta, Belinda
Friend, Nerida
Graham, Martin
Green, Mitzi
Grego, Helen
Griffits, Landy
Haenke, Janet
Hills, Alice
Hodder, Greg
Hodgkins, Wendy
Homsey, Louise
Hunt, Rosalind
Hunter, Kathryn
Lawson, Carol
McCall, Christine
McKinnon, Giselle
Merchant, Keith
Murray, Warren
Napier, Melissa
O'Donnell, Michael
Pendlebury, Greg
Rosée, Trudy
Shaw, Brian
Skeoch, Greg
Simon, Greg
Sindel, Jann
Slattery, Jeanette
Smith, Leonie
Soerenson, Jacob
Solomon, Jeanette
Stirling, Robert
Sutherland, Anne
Tonkes, Anita
Turner, D.
Vescio, Julia
Wright, Jim

Students Participating from Mitchell C.A.E. (N=23)

Baxter, Ian
Bingham, Michael
Bonett, Wayne
Bool, Michelle
Buchanan, Kim
Cay, Jennifer
Cocci, Kim
Court, Carmel
Dul, Helen
Finn, C.
Fyfe,Debra
Galloway, Tim
Gardiner, R.
Gentle, Stephen
Mackenzie James
McMahon, Peter
Pascoe, Owen
Perry, Denise
Turkovic, Edward
Warburton, Suzanne
Wheeler, Peter
Williams, Kerry
Woodhouse,V.

Students Participating from Mt.St. Mary College. (N=26)

Burden, Michael
Conlan, Kelly
Conlon, R.
Ducrou, B.
Feenstra, Dick
Harris, P.
Hartley, Colin
Hasler, D.
Homann, Stephen
Hooper, Greg
Hume, David
Kettell, John
Mahony, Philip
McGee, S.
McGrath, P.
McIlveen, R.
Modini, Gerard
Nihill, Ray
O'Dea, Marty
Panuceio, John
Park, M.
Paynter, Graham
Stevens, Mark
Tinsey, Wayne
Vanderkley, T.
Wallace, John

Students Participating from Nepean C.A.E. (N=141)

Abela, Rita
Anderson, G.
Arnold, Debbie
Baezelis, Lyn
Baker, Terry
Beaver, L.
Beck, Mark
Becker, Bernadette
Beeck, Wendy
Beggs, Kathy
Berry, Dale
Bjarne, Robyn
Black, P.
Bromhead, Bethany
Bond, Jenny
Buchan, R.
Bush, Sue
Butler, J.
Buzzlick, Joy
Cairns, Kerrell
Carveth, Heather
Clark, N.
Clarke, N.
Coubrough, Merran
Crane, J.
Creech, Barbara
Crookson, Diane
Dean, Steve
Dillon, A
Dowling, Jackie
Doyle, T.
Drewe, Marion
Dunk, Henny
Elkojje, Salam
Erwin, J.
Falk, J.
Fisher, M.
Fletcher, Jane
Flynn, Beryl
Friend, Wendy
Fuller, Sue
Gardiner, Lee
Garton, Sue
Garven, Fiona
Glendenning, Chris
Goady, R.
Goodfellow, R.
Goodwin, Karen
Grant, R.
Grist, H.
Grohs, Kathryn
Hadfield, Karenne
Hahn, Kurt
Hamilton, R.
Harris, M.
Harrison, Joanne
Harvey, Roslyn
Hendricks, P.
Henstock, Tracy
Hieronymus, Phil
Hilly, Glenn
Hogbin, Dianne
Hollins, Graham
Hooke, Dianne
Hopkins, Wendy
Hudson, Elizabeth
Izzet, S.
Jamieson, Enid
Jamieson, Vicki
Jamieson, Wendy
Jennings, M.
Jordan, B.
Kelly, D.
Knight, Wayne
Koutsoukos, Margaret
Kremac, Sue
Laing, Michael
Lans, Michael
Lans, P.
Lans, R.
Last, Heather
Leabeater, Wendy
Lindores, D.
Madden, Michelle
Marlin, P.
Mason, Sue
McEvoy, E.
McKell, Kathy
Minton, W.
Moore, R.
Morgan, Jackie
Morgan, Susan
Murray, Bernadette
Ornella, A.
Osborne, Julie
Owen, Jan
Parusel, Rose
Perkins, Narelle
Phillips, N.
Podesta, Kerry
Pond, Sue
Quist, T.
Rankin, C.
Reid, J.
Reynolds, Jan
Ricksen, P.
Robertson, Debbie
Robson, Charmaine
Rosing, J.
Samuels, Allison
Scheike, Jeannette
Scott, Michael
Searle, Susan
Shaw, A.
Shipway, Jeanette
Siegenthaler, Sue
Silversides, G.

Nepean C.A.E. (Cont'd)

Simpfendorfer, Helen
Sincock, Helen
Smith, Noeline
Spithill, K.
Storey, [illegible].
Sut, C.
Taylor, D.
Tomczyk, J.
Tomlins, Robert
Tonnet, Michael
Unger, Joy
Usher, Kathy
Walker, Lynette
Walker, Phillip
Weekes, Mick
Weichman, Lindie
Wells, Kerry
White, Stephen
Whiteman, Roslyn
Whiticker, A.
Williams, Julie
Wilson, Ron
Winded, J.
Worden, A.

Students Participating from Newcastle C.A.E. (N=73)

Ackermann,Krystina
Alcorn, Scott
Allen, Boyd
Beggs, Robert
Bennett, Ted
Benson, David
Bessingthwaighte, L.
Blanch, Annette
Bundy, Jan
Callen, Danny
Chisholm, J.
Coates, R.
Cockerell, Bruce
Colley, Keith
Collins, J.
Colquhoun, K.
Coulter, J.
Crowther, John
Cummings, David
Dawson, Lorraine
Donald, Janet
Duggan, Greg
Dunn, Anthony
Finn, B.
Forster, Marcia
Freeman, Kate
Fulton, Christine
Gilmore, Dele
Halbert, Michael
Harris, M.
Harvey, Mark
Hayes, T.
Herfurth, G.
Hill, Margaret
Keith, Julie
Kelty, E.
Kurtz, Kerry
Landy, R.
Llewellyn, Sue
Lloyd, P.
McAuley, Leone
McLean, Paul
McLoughlin, S.
McMonigal, Debbie
Milas, Jim
Minter, Leanne
Mollison, Annette
Moore, Peter
Murray, M.
Naughton, Anne
Neilands, A.
Newell, Ruth
Northam, Nerida
Oakey, Trevor
Pead, Ron
Petherbridge, W.
Plunkett, Tony
Richards, Helen
Robinson, John
Rose, Thitima
Schur, Larry
Simon, Gerard
Sinclair, Margaret
Smith, Nerida
Sonntag, Manfred
Speer, Christine
Squire, Wayne
Sullivan,Paul
Toole, Eric
Vaaron-Morel, B.
Wakely, John
Walker, J.
Weppler, Ross

Students Participating from Riverina C.A.E. (N=98)

Aston, D.
Barton, K.
Barton, V.
Beasley, V.
Bianchini, S.
Bishop, T.
Bush, A.
Campbell, D.
Carlin, H.
Chant, L.
Clark, A.
Collier, N.
Corey, M.
Corrigan, A.
Cottrell, B.
Cranston, P.
Crawford, S.
Curphey, K.
Dalton, J.
Davis, K.
Day, M.
De Franceschi, J.
Doyle, A.
Drayton, K.
Fitzgerald, M.
Forge, C.
Forner, J.
Garnsey, H.
Gowans, L.
Guy, M.
Hann, T.
Hanrahan, J.
Hay,W.
Hezlitt, D.
Hilton, C.
Hodges, N.
Holmes, J.
Holmes, P.
Houghton, K.
Hull, K.
Hutt, E.
Huxley, J.
James, E.
Janik, M.
Jobbins, M.
Kerney, P.
Keyte, E.
Kilburn, J.
King, P.
Klose, M.
Koczanowski, C.
Kyle, F.
Leake, K.
Livingstone, M.
Loudon, R.
Manning, M.
Marchant, J.
Maslin, C.
McGrath, M.
McHugh, F.
Michalowicz, K.
Middleton, S.
Molloy, P.
Moore, J.
Moran, D.
Mueller, L.
Mutton, D.
Nelson, T.
Noble, K.
O'Connell, J.
O'Donnell, M.
Pennells, D.
Proctor, A.
Redfearn, I.
Rees, A.
Reichelt, D.
Robinson, L.
Rose, C.
Scott, P.
Smith, J.
Smith, W.
Stanley, S.
Star, K.
Stipanovic, M.
Thomas, S.
Thompson, G.
Thomson, D.
Tint, K.
Warren, R.
Way, M.
Westwood, D.
White, J.
Whitney, R.
Williams, J.
Wilson, S.
Wood, S.
Worrall, F.
Ziebell, C.

Students Participating from Sydney Teachers' College (N=327)

Adams, Donna
Afflick, Kay
Alborough, Vicki
Alden, Robyn
Alewood, Jan
Anastassiou, Michelle
Anderson, Christopher
Anderson, Ian
Applesby, Margaret
Aslanis, Donna
Attard, Mary-Anne
Auld, Jan
Austin, Beverley
Badinszky, Aniko
Badman, Mark
Baker, Helen
Baker, Susan
Balcewicz, Julianna
Balding, Peter
Balding, Terese
Banning, Steven
Barringham, Gail
Barrington, Jeffrey
Bates,Geoffrey
Beckwith, Elizabeth
Bosler, Vicki
Bradley, Janelle
Bray, Irene
Briggs, Margaret
Brophy, Neil
Brown, Rita
Buckwalter, Lynda
Budd, Brian
Burchell, Kevin
Butler, Judith
Buttel, Georgina
Cameron, Gayle
Carlon, Colleen
Carmichael, Garry
Carroll, Colin
Cartwright, Joanne
Cassilles, Lee
Celeste, Angela
Champion, Paul
Charlton, James
Cheeseman, Linda
Chersovani, Lorella
Chesher, Anne
Chesterton, Rhonda
Clark, Anthony
Cobby, Adrienne
Cole, Susan
Coles, Helen
Collett, Linda
Conn, Joanne
Corkin, Nigel
Cormack, Joanne
Cremona, Pauline
Crotty, Colette
Crowhurst, Paula
Cullen, Vicki
Cunneen, Jeanette
Danis, Theresa
Darragh, Gaye
Davis, Brett
Davis, Jennifer
Deadman, Julie
De Botton, Joseph
Derrett, Ruth
De Witte, Joanne
Dillon, Brian
Doherty, Lorraine
Dominello, Eva
Donald, William
Douglass, Yvonne
Dowling, Beverley
Drane, Susan
Dray, Rowan
Durham, Robyn
Dunk, Elizabeth
Dunk, Julie-Ann
Dunk, Susan
Edwards, Mark
Edsall, Nola
Ellis, Wendy
Emery, David
Emmett, Kim
Enge, Lindy
Engel, Annette
Errington, Grant
Erzay, Monica
Fallon, Dorothy
Fates, Tom
Ferguson, Liane
Fitzhenry, Gail
Fitzpatrick, Mark
Fitzroy, Amanda
Flaherty, Kim
Fletcher, Heather
Foster, Gregory
Foster, Lyndall
Fouracre, Geoffrey
Franklin, Wendy
Fusca, Mary
Gale, John
Gandin, Michele
Gardiner, Pamela
Gately, Patricia
Gatt, Suzanne
Gasparotto, Patricia
Gayst, Carolyn
Gibbins, David
Gillard, Michelle
Gillespie, Neil
Goldsmith, Stephen

Golfinopoulos, Nia
Gottlieb, Helen
Gosling, Max
Gowan, Allan
Graham, Cathryn
Granland, Tracey
Greer, Angela
Halpin, Christine
Hampson, Vicki
Harper, Michele
Harrison, Geoffrey
Harrison, Susan
Harrod, Margot
Hart, Geoffrey
Hart, Kerry
Hart, Robyn
Hartig-Prim, Jon
Harvey, Julie
Harvey, Sandra
Hayward, Judith
Hazell, Jennifer
Heath, Vivien
Hill, Cathy
Hill, Maureen
Hill, Peter
Hill, Wayne
Hitchcock, Ian
Hope, Elizabeth
Howard, Peter
Hunt, Cherie
Hurst, Vivian
Huthnance, Lawrence
Ingrati, Vince
Ireland, Toni
Irvine, Lynette
Janzon, Albetie
Johnson, Joanne
Johnstone, Joanne
Johnstone, Peta
Jones, Narelle
Jordan, Joanne
Justins, Tanya
Kayatz, Donna
Keldoulis, Janet
Kelly, Francine
Kelly, Jennifer
Kelly, Thomas
Kemmis, Wendy
Kennedy, Paul
Kiddar, Stephanie
Kiel, Robert
King, Andrew
King, Cheryl
Kitchin, Phillip
Knight, Helen
Korn, Debra
Kovacs, Gabriella
Laney, Melinda
Layt, Joanne
Leabeater, Roslyn
Lee, Jennifer
Lee, Karen
Leslie, Karan
Lewis, Nicola
Lewis, Suzanne
Leys, Sally
Macerola, Anna
Macerola, Anthony
Macgrath, Sally
Macgregor, Alistair
Mack, Susan
Manchester, Jane
Marshall, Wayne
Martin, Marianne
Mason, Fiona
Massard, John
Maxwell, Russell
McAlpin, Ian
McCullum, Dearne
McIntosh, Pamela
McPherson, Fiona
McTigue, John
Meath, Jeffrey
Meggitt, Kathryn
Mendick, Andrea
Metcalfe, Jillian
Mihajlovic, Dora
Milburn, Bradley
Miller, Linda
Miller, Tracey
Millevoj, Robert
Miskell, Patricia
Mitchell, Karen
Monohan, Elizabeth
Moon, Gregory
Moore, Lindy
Morgan, Gillian
Morris, Julie
Morris, Robyn
Morley, Kim
Mulvaney, Julie
Munro, Ross
Murphy, Dulcie
Murray, Grahame
Napthali, Margaret
Nardelia, Josephine
Naseby, Dennis
Newell, Linda
Newman, Peter
Newton, Jennifer
Nicholls, Charles
Niessen, Veronica
Niklas, Margarette
Nugent, Mark
Nursey, Ian
O'Donnell, Debra
O'Flynn, Bronwyn
Oktalowicz, Marie-Louise
Opperman, Gwenda
Page, Stephen

Sydney Teachers' College (Cont'd)

Panetta, Mandy
Pascoe, Ian
Pateman, Janet
Paul, Jerry
Paxton, Michael
Paxton, Raymond
Pentecost, Kevin
Petch, Mary
Phillips, Graeme
Pizarro, Brian
Planner, Jennifer
Porter, Keith
Powell, Michael
Provan, Noel
Pryce, Barbara
Punch, Deborah
Quayle, Sandra
Raftery, Catherine
Raper, Bradley
Reedy, Christine
Richardson, Catherine
Riesinger, Johanna
Rigg, Christine
Rigg, Jeffrey
Rigney, Susan
Robertson, Alexander
Roffey, Jeffrey
Roxborough, Debra
Rudgley, Debra
Rushton, Joanne
Russell, Joanne
Rutherford, Heather
Ryrie, Soraya
Salvatore, Adriana
Schwartzer, Ellen
Schwede, Lynne
Shanahan, Catherine
Sheppard, Carol
Sicco, Julie
Simianato, Deborah
Simpson, Kim
Skentzos, Angeliki
Smeaton, Jaqueline
Smith, Dale
Smith, Fiona
Smytheman, John
Socrates, Margaret
Sokoloff, Kathy
Souter, Patricia
Spowart, Lee
Stavrou, Dora
Stiff, Colin
St Ledger, Anne
Stubbs, Leonie
Summers, Robyn
Svigelj, Boris
Swanson, Ellen
Sykes, Marie-Anne
Symes, Kerry
Taylor, Kerry
Teler, Lidia
Thake, Christine
Thomas, Glenda
Tisiandarlis, Mary
Troughton, Kathie
Turner, Stephanie
Vanderkyl, Janette
Vanderpoel, Deborah
Votano, Cathy
Walker, Louise
Wall, Ian
Wallworth, Kerry
Walsh, Suzanne
Ward, Leslie
Ward, Lynne
Watkins, Greg
Wellham, Dale
White, Karen
White, Rhonda
Wicks, Suzanne
Wightman, Helen
Wignell, Peter
Williamson, Geoffrey
Wilson, Christopher
Winney, Sharon
Woodhams, Shelley
Woods, Donna
Wootten, Alison
Wyatt, Julie
Young, Cathy
Young, Robyn
Zalfelds, Robert

Students Participating from Wollongong Institute of Education (N=150)

Alvares, Donita
Arnold, Jenny
Arthur, Sharon
Aylmer, Bruce
Baker, Bradley
Bakes, Debbie
Barrett, Stephanie
Behringer, Garry
Bell, Chris
Bennett, Stephen
Berwick, Peter
Blackshaw, Mark
Boon, Frances
Boyd, Jenny
Braga, Dianne
Bridge, Gary
Brierley, Craig
Burke, Robert
Burke, Suellen
Burns, Peter
Byrne, Leonie
Cannon, Gordon
Chessel, Jane
Clerdenning, Cheryl
Cohen, Chris
Corbett, Geoff
Creenaune, Maureen
Crighton, Brad
Csok, Helen
Cumming, Kelly
Curtois, Christine
D'Acunto, Rina
Davies, Derek
Dileva, Jenny
Dimelia, Lee
Duffy, Lynette
Dunster, Tracy
Durnford, Judith
Earle, Sharon

Espinosa, Lesley
Fairclough, Alison
Fairfax, Kerryn
Fiedeldy, John
Findlay, Stephen
Fisher, Mark
Francis, Lorraine
Fredericks, Rhonda
Geraghty, Frances
Giorgio, Tony
Gostelow, Helen
Gough, Louise
Gray, Steve
Gregory, Gail
Groch, Marie
Gurtner, Antony
Hargrave, David
Harris, Karen
Harrison, Mary
Hayes, Rosemary
Henderson, Carol
Hennessy, Gai
Herbert, Dene
Hine, Beverley
Hodgson, Marilyn
Hodgson, Peter
Hope, Carolyn
Hopkins, John
Humphreys, Lynda
Hurt, Frances
Iqbal, Nazreen
Jackson, Beth
Johnson, Jean
Johnston, Wendy
Jones, Maureen
Jones, Richard
Josh, Patricia
Kearton, Christine
Keft, Debra

Knox, Wendy
Koglin, Maurice
Konig, Helen
Koskinen, Marja
Kryger, June
Kuit, Donna
Laird, Elaine
Lawery, Susan
Lean, Tanya
Leary, Virginia
Lee, Sandra
Leonard, Sharon
Ling, Trisha
Lock, Kim
Marshall, Michelle
Martinez, Manolita
Masters, Brett
McConaghy, Hughen
McCormack, Debbie
McKinnon, Judy
McWilliam, Wendy
Mealey, Allison
Middleton, Kerry
Milton, Kathy
Morris, Ross
Nethercott, Rosalind
O'Connor, Lynn
Palermo, Paula
Panozzo, Mary
Patterson, Jeanette
Payne, Doug
Pell, Marry Jane
Popovska, Lili
Prosser, Lyndall
Rebic, Martha
Reilly, Janice
Rennex, David
Robinson, Penni
Rodgers, Cathy

Wollongong Institute of Education (Cont'd)

Rowe, Adrian
Sarakatsianos, Athena
Saxon, Lynne
Smith, Sue
Sommerville, Jo-Anne
Spicer, Mark
Spiewak, Richard
Stewart, Christine
Stewart, Michelle
Tapsas, Joy
Taylor, Christine
Tenhave, Peter
Thompson, Kay
Thorn, Phillipa
Thoroughgood, Sandy
Tinker, Greg
Tobias, Jenny
Tolland, Cheryl
Turnbull, Sue
Van Smeerdijk, Mark
Wagner, James
Wakeford, Kathryn
Walton, Alison
Wan, Denis
Warburton, Michelle
Weymark, David
Williams, Donna
Willis, Ray
Wilson, Bronwyn
Youll, Alison
Zignic, Dianne

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